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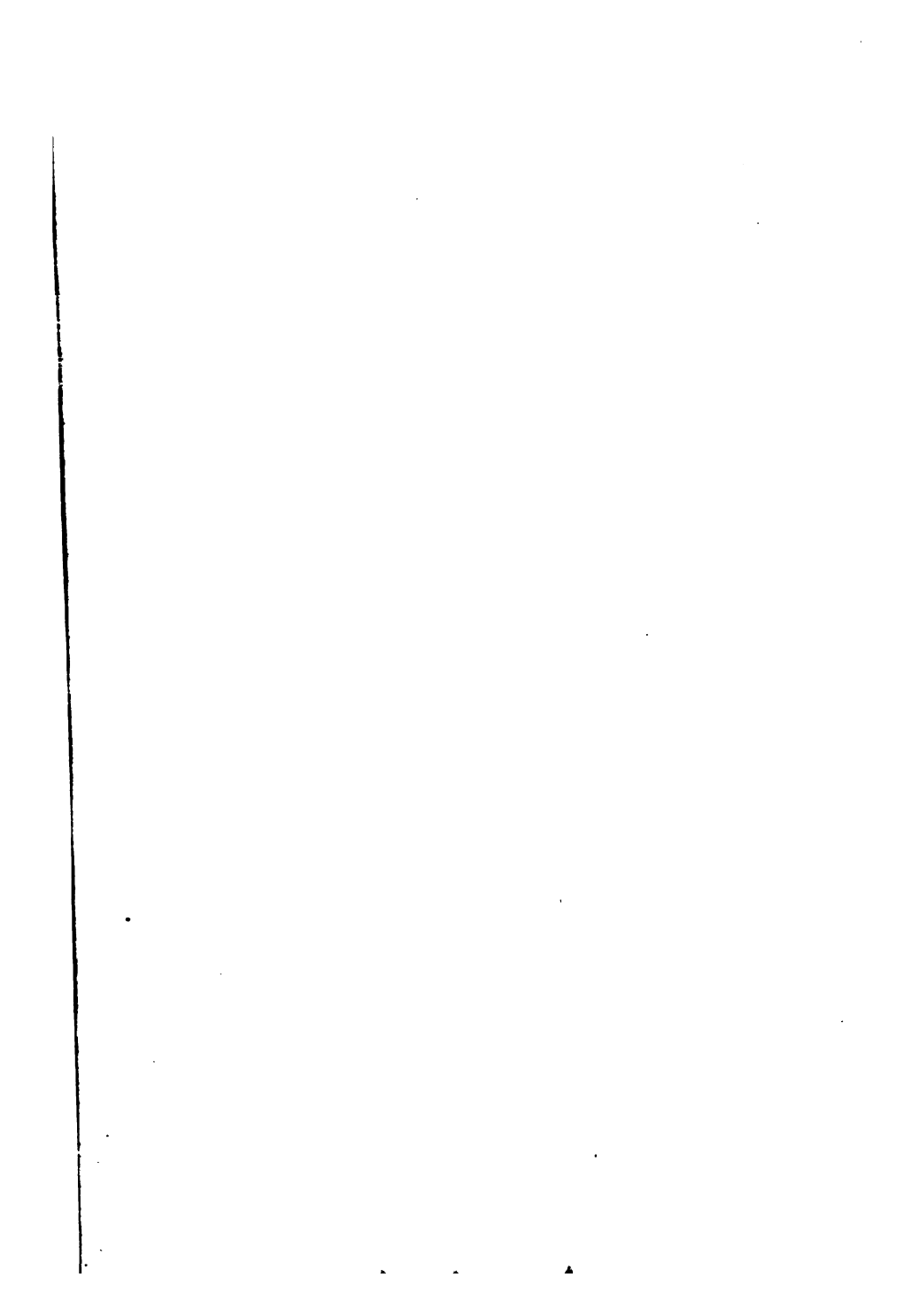
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PROGRESSIVE STUDIES IN ENGLISH—II

AN ELEMENTARY
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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PREFACE

In publishing, under the general title of *Progressive Studies in English*, a series of volumes intended for use in American grade and high schools, the authors desire to say that it has been their aim to furnish manuals of grammar and composition that shall prove eminently practical and helpful from the point of view of both teacher and pupil. There is still such great variety of opinions among teachers of these subjects that no writer of text-books can hope to please all classes. The views of the authors of these books must be described in general as conservative; they have adopted, however, with gratitude, the best suggestions of recent writers on the teaching of language regardless of schools of thought. It is believed that these books will be found to provide a minimum of theory with the maximum amount of practice, based on models of acknowledged excellence.

It has been deemed wise to gather further discussion of purpose and method in grammar in the elementary grades into a small pamphlet which the publishers will take pleasure in sending to all teachers interested.

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AN ELEMENTARY ENGLISH GRAMMAR

INTRODUCTION

Grammar is the science that treats of the forms and relations of words. It teaches us the rules that govern the use of certain forms of words in certain places in the sentence; as, *I—me, he—him, did—done, come—came*, and many others. While to know the correct form will not necessarily make us use the correct form, the knowledge will *help* us to be correct, and it will give us the ability to criticize and improve our usage. Grammar trains us also to observe carefully the relation of words as they are combined into sentences and other groups, and gives us terms with which to explain these thought-relations. This last aim of the study of grammar is of special importance in English, because of some peculiarities in the construction of the English language. In studying this book we have always to keep in mind that in analyzing a sentence we are explaining its *meaning* in grammatical terms; that through the forms of the sentence we are studying the thought.

It is this grammatical study of the forms and relations of words in the English sentence that we are now about to undertake. Because we wish to work thoroughly and systematically, we shall begin with the most elementary notions, though we may already have become familiar with them in our language work in the earlier grades.

I

THE SENTENCE AND THE PARTS OF SPEECH

I. THE SENTENCE

When you came together at the beginning of the school year, after several weeks of separation, you had a great many thoughts to express. You said to one another such things as these:

1. We were at the seashore.
2. Mother and I were in the mountains.
3. I visited my cousins in the country.
4. I had a delightful steamer trip on the Great Lakes.
5. I have been at work, and have added something to my bank account.
6. Did you have a pleasant time?
7. Did you meet my friends at Lake George?

These groups of words in which you expressed your thoughts are called SENTENCES.

DEFINITION. A sentence is a group of words that expresses a thought.

All speaking and writing are made up of sentences and groups of sentences (paragraphs), because in writing and in speaking we express a thought or a succession of thoughts. The following paragraphs are made up of several sentences. How many are there in each?

The Wolf and the Crane

A wolf devoured his prey so ravenously that a bone stuck in his throat. It gave him great pain. He ran howling up

and down. He offered to reward handsomely anyone who would pull it out. A crane was moved by pity as well as by the prospect of money. He removed the bone. He asked for the promised reward.

"Reward!" cried the wolf. "You greedy fellow, what reward can you possibly require? You have had your head in my throat. I let you pull it out unharmed. Get away with you. Don't come again within reach of my paw."—Æsop.

The Fox and the Grapes

A hungry fox saw some clusters of ripe grapes hanging from a vine. She tried all her tricks to get at them. But she could not reach them. At last she gave it up, saying, "The grapes are sour, anyway, and not ripe. I don't care for them."—Æsop.

2. DECLARATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, AND IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

Some sentences are used to make statements, others to ask questions, others to give commands. We have, then, three kinds of sentences.

DEFINITIONS. A declarative sentence is one that makes a statement.

An interrogative sentence is one that asks a question.

An imperative sentence is one that expresses a command, a request, or an entreaty.

Find the declarative and interrogative sentences in the following selections:

Where Did You Come From?

1. Where did you come from, baby dear?
2. Out of the everywhere into here.
3. Where did you get your eyes so blue?
4. Out of the sky as I came through.

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5. What makes the light in them sparkle and spin?
6. Some of the starry spikes left in.
7. Where did you get that little tear?
8. I found it waiting when I got here.
9. What makes your forehead so smooth and high?
10. A soft hand stroked it as I went by.
11. What makes your cheek like a warm white rose?
12. I saw something better than anyone knows.
13. Whence that three-cornered smile of bliss?
14. Three angels gave me at once a kiss.
15. Where did you get this pearly ear?
16. God spoke, and it came out to hear.
17. Where did you get those arms and hands?
18. Love made itself into hooks and bands.
19. Feet, whence did you come, you darling things?
20. From the same box as the cherubs' wings.
21. How did they all come just to be you?
22. God thought of me, and so I grew.
23. But how did you come to us, you dear?
24. God thought of you, and so I am here.

GEORGE MACDONALD: *At the Back of the North Wind*.

NOTE.—Some of the answers in this dialogue, lines 2, 4, 6, 20, are not complete sentences. Some words have been left out to make good verse. Therefore in the study of sentences these four lines are not to be considered.

The Frogs and the Bulls

A frog one day peeped out of a lake. He saw two bulls fighting some distance off in the meadow. He called to his companions.

"What will become of us?" said he.

"What are you frightened at?" asked one of the frogs. "What can their quarrels have to do with us? They are only proving who shall be master of the herd."

"True," answered the first frog. "It is just that which causes my fear. The one that is beaten will take refuge here in the marshes. He will trample us to death."

And so it happened. Many a frog in dying had sore proof that the fears he had thought to be foolish were not so in fact.—ÆSOP.

Write six imperative sentences such as your teacher might use in the school-room.

3. EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES

1. How becoming your new hat is!
2. What a beautiful day this has been!
3. Such lovely flowers we saw in the park!

Each of these sentences tells us something, but not in the simplest way, as if one had said:

4. Your new hat is very becoming.
5. This has been a beautiful day.
6. We saw lovely flowers in the park.

In the first group (sentences 1-3), the speaker, besides giving us information, has expressed his feeling about the fact he has stated. He has felt pleasure in beholding agreeable sights. In

7. Oh, I am so sorry!

the emotion expressed is one of regret. In

8. See that great rock!

the feeling is surprise, or wonder, and the sentence is imperative.

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9. Oh, what is that?

This is an interrogative sentence, expressing surprise, or perhaps fear. Declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences may be spoken or written in such a way that they express some feeling. They are then called **EXCLAMATORY** sentences. Such a sentence is usually followed by an exclamation point.

DEFINITION. An exclamatory sentence is one that shows by its form of expression some strong or sudden emotion.

Read each of these sentences as exclamatory. Classify it as declarative, interrogative, or imperative, and tell what emotion each expresses.

1. Watch that bird!
2. How happy that child is with his new toys!
3. Build me straight, O worthy master!
4. And see! she stirs!
She starts—she moves—she seems to feel
The thrill of life along her keel,
And, spurning with her foot the ground,
With one exulting, joyous bound,
She leaps into the ocean's arms!
5. Would you believe that John is so strong!
6. Thou, too, sail on, O Ship of State!
Sail on, O Union, strong and great!
7. Did you ever see a better player!
8. To-day the vessel shall be launched!
9. Give me liberty or give me death!
10. I was a Viking wild!
11. How can you like that color!
12. Fairest of all was she
Among the Norsemen!
13. Oh, shan't we be glad to get home!
14. Now bring me back the luck of Edenhall!

4. THE SUBJECT AND THE PREDICATE

Whenever we have a thought, we have in mind two things:

1. The person or thing about whom or which we are thinking.

2. What we think about that person or thing.

There are, then, two parts to our thought. There must also be two parts to the sentence that expresses our thought.

1. Plants grow.

5. Charles plays.

2. Fishes swim.

6. Anna sews.

3. Rain falls.

7. Men work.

4. Birds sing.

8. Boys run.

These sentences express thoughts about *plants, fishes, rain, birds, Charles, Anna, men, boys*. What thoughts about these persons and things do the sentences express?

The part that names the thing about which we are thinking is called the SUBJECT. The part that tells what we are thinking about the subject is the PREDICATE.

DEFINITIONS. The subject of the sentence is the part that tells what we are thinking about.

The predicate of the sentence tells what is thought about the subject.

Very few sentences indeed consist of two words only; therefore very few have single words for subject and predicate. A single word, however, is generally the base of each part, and the other words are modifiers of that word.

9. My father's horse was injured in the accident.

This sentence tells us something about a *horse*; *my*

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father's only tells whose *horse* it was. *Horse* is, then, the subject word. We will divide the complete subject from the complete predicate by a vertical line, and underline the subject word.

My father's horse | was injured in the accident.

In the same way copy and mark the following sentences:

10. The picture of the Sistine Madonna is my favorite.
11. The man that I spoke to is my uncle.
12. The cold weather came suddenly.
13. A pouring rain prevented our going out.
14. The noise on the street woke me early.
15. The loss of the money was not their greatest misfortune.
16. I found my book on the table.

Read the complete subject and tell the subject word in each sentence of these paragraphs:

The Wolf in Shepherd's Clothing

A wolf made frequent visits to a flock of sheep in his neighborhood. He began to be well known to them. He soon thought it wise to appear in a new character. He disguised himself in shepherd's clothing. He went again to the sheepfold. The shepherd lay on the grass asleep. His dog lay beside him. The foolish wolf tried to imitate the shepherd's voice. The horrid noise awakened the shepherd and his dog. The wolf could not run because of his clothing. The dog killed him.—ÆSOP.

The Blacksmith

The village smithy stands under a spreading chestnut tree. The smith is a mighty man. He has large and sinewy hands. The muscles of his brawny arms are very strong.

His hair is crisp and black. His face is much tanned. His brow is wet with honest sweat. He earns whatever he can. He looks the whole world squarely in the face. He is not in debt to any man.

5. THE POSITION OF THE SUBJECT

Look over once more the sentences in Lesson 4, and notice where the subject stands. Is not the subject at the beginning of each sentence? It is often found at the beginning, but not always. We often put the predicate before the subject. We may even put a part of the predicate before the subject and a part after.

In some of the following sentences the subject stands before the predicate, in some it stands after the predicate, and in some it divides the predicate. You can find the subjects and predicates if you use in your study the definitions of them learned in Lesson 4. Prepare to read in class the two parts of each sentence.

1. Down from the hills came the army.
2. The soldiers were ragged and tired.
3. Clear shone the sun.
4. Into the house rushed the hungry boys.
5. Time and tide wait for no man.
6. Few and short were the prayers we said.
7. We spake not a word of sorrow.
8. Yesterday the girls walked two miles.
9. How far did the girls walk yesterday?
10. Up on the hill stood a tower.
11. Into the valley of death rode the Six Hundred.
12. Far from his home wandered the lost child.
13. Under the spreading chestnut tree
The village smithy stands.
14. Great was the fall of our hopes.
15. Does your brother go to college?

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16. My brother goes to Harvard.
17. We have been reading *The Swiss Family Robinson*.
18. Have you read *Huckleberry Finn*?
19. Where did you find those balls?
20. High rose the tower above the city.

6. THE SUBJECT OF THE IMPERATIVE SENTENCE

Study the following imperative sentences:

1. Come here.
2. Bring me your book.
3. Close the door.
4. Take this to your father, please.

The sentence "Come here" is addressed *to* some person, but we find no word to represent that person in the sentence. When we speak to a person, we commonly use the word *you*. Hence the complete sentence is *You come here*. Complete all the other imperative sentences by speaking the subject of each. Does it seem natural to express the subject *you* in these sentences? We generally omit the subject of an imperative sentence. When we express it, we usually put it after a part of the predicate.

5. Love *thou* thy land.
6. Go *ye* out to meet him.

But we may put the subject first, as in this sentence:

7. *You* come here.

Write ten imperative sentences that might be used in a game of ball. Have you expressed the subject in any of them? If you have not, can you put in the subject?

7. NOUNS

In the fables printed in Lessons 1, 2, and 4, find the words that *name* persons, animals, places, and things.

Names are among the commonest and most useful words in our language. Without them we should not be able to express our thoughts at all. Words that do the important work of naming are called NOUNS. The word comes, through the French, from a Latin word meaning "name."

DEFINITION. A noun is a word that names.

Nouns name not only living beings, places, and things, but also qualities, as *strength, kindness, wisdom*; and such abstract notions as *truth, beauty, justice*.

Find the nouns in this paragraph from Irving's *Legend of Sleepy Hollow*:

A great elm-tree spread its broad branches over [Katrina's house]; ¹ at the foot of which bubbled up a spring of the softest and sweetest water, in a little well, formed of a barrel; and then stole sparkling away through the grass, to a neighboring brook, that bubbled along among alders and dwarf willows. Hard by the farm-house was a vast barn, that might have served for a church; every window and crevice of which seemed bursting forth with the treasures of the farm; the flail was busily resounding within it from morning till night; swallows and martins skimmed twittering about the eaves; and rows of pigeons, some with one eye turned up, as if watching the weather, some with their heads under their wings, or buried in their bosoms, and others swelling, and cooing, and bowing about their dames, were enjoying the sunshine on the roof. Sleek, unwieldy porkers were grunting in the repose and abundance of their pens; whence sallied

¹ The brackets indicate words supplied here in order to make the sense complete.

forth, now and then, troops of sucking pigs, as if to snuff the air. A stately squadron of snowy geese were riding in an adjoining pond, convoying whole fleets of ducks; regiments of turkeys were gobbling through the farm-yard, and guinea-fowls fretting about it, like ill-tempered housewives, with their peevish discontented cry. Before the barn door strutted the gallant cock, that pattern of a husband, a warrior, and a fine gentleman, clapping his burnished wings and crowing in the pride and gladness of his heart—sometimes tearing up the earth with his feet, and then generously calling his ever-hungry family of wives and children to enjoy the rich morsel which he had discovered.—WASHINGTON IRVING: *The Sketch Book*.

8. PRONOUNS

Jack bought some roses. Jack gave the roses to Jack's sister. The sister gave some of the roses to the sister's mother. The mother thanked the mother's children for the children's kindness.

This paragraph sounds very awkward. If we examine it closely, we shall see that the repetition of some of the nouns is disagreeable. We may improve it by making the following changes:

Jack bought some roses. *He* gave *them* to *his* sister. *She* gave some of *them* to *her* mother. The mother thanked *her* children for *their* kindness.

In the revised paragraph we have substituted some little words for the nouns that made the first paragraph awkward. Such words are called PRONOUNS, from a Latin word (through the French) meaning "for a noun." These words designate persons and objects without naming them.

Make a list of the pronouns used in the above paragraph, and tell for what noun each stands.

DEFINITION. A pronoun is a word used in the place of a noun.

Suppose your name is *Anna*. What pronoun will you use for the noun *Anna*, referring to yourself, in the following sentences?

1. Anna went to Chicago last week.
2. Anna's cousins came to visit Anna.

Make a list of the pronouns that you have used in speaking of yourself alone.

Now suppose that you wish to speak of yourself and some of your friends. Fill the following blanks with the necessary pronouns:

3. ——— went often to the theater.
4. ——— favorite play was *Rip Van Winkle*.
5. Jefferson's playing pleased ——— very much.

What pronouns refer to yourself and others?

What pronouns would you use in place of the name *Paul* if you were addressing the next three sentences to a boy with that name?

6. I will send Paul a book.
7. Paul will enjoy the story.
8. Paul's books are well cared for.

What pronouns do you use when you are speaking to some person?

Rewrite the following paragraph, changing the nouns to pronouns where such a change would improve it:

9. Jack and Jessie have been reading *Robinson Crusoe*. The book was given Jack and Jessie last Christmas by Jack's and Jessie's aunt. Jack likes the story very much. Jack thinks Jack should like to try living on a desert island with a fine dog for Jack's companion, and a Man Fri

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upon Jack. Jessie likes the story too; but Jessie says Jessie likes better to read *Little Women*, which Jessie's aunt gave Jessie on Jessie's last birthday.

What pronouns have you used instead of the boy's name? Instead of the girl's name? In referring to both?

Find the pronouns in the next two sentences, and tell what nouns they stand for:

10. Will found Tom's knife. Tom had lost it on the baseball ground.

11. A bird fell down upon the steps. Its wing had been injured by a shot.

9. VERBS

1. My books | lie on the table.
2. Our neighbor's house | burned last night.
3. The tall boy | runs fast.

The subject of each of these sentences is separated from the predicate by a vertical line, and the subject noun is underlined. We must now study the predicate more carefully.

Just as the complete subject contains one word as its basis, so the complete predicate has a base-word. It is the word that makes the assertion about the subject. *Lie, burned, runs* assert something about *books, house, boy*. Words that assert, and so form the basis of the predicate of the sentence, are called VERBS.

DEFINITION. A verb is the asserting or predicating word of a sentence.

A verb commonly expresses action; as *run, jump, hide, find, ask, speak*. The words *am, is, are, was, were* do not express action, but they are often used as asserting words. They are therefore verbs. They express *being*:

4. John is tall.
5. The flower is pretty.
6. The apples are large.

Such verbs as *seem* and *become* express *condition*:

7. They seem happy.
8. We became tired.

Find the verbs in the fables printed in Lessons 1, 2, and 4.

10. VERB-PHRASES

1. The children are running on the lawn.
2. The man has cut the grass well.
3. The children may play till dark.
4. The balls will be found on the piazza.

After we have found the complete subject and complete predicate of each sentence, and the subject word, we are ready to look for the predicate verb.

In the first sentence we have not made our assertion with the word *are* alone.

5. The children *are* on the lawn
is not the thought we wish to express. To make the assertion, we need both words, *are* and *running*. In the second, the assertion is made with two words, *has* and *cut*. In the fourth, three words are required to assert what we wish to assert about the balls, *will*, *be*, and *found*.

From these examples we see that a verb is not always a single word; it may be a group of words. Such a group is called a VERB-PHRASE.

DEFINITION. A verb-phrase is a group of words that expresses the duty of a verb.

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Make a list of verbs and verb-phrases from the selection from Irving in Lesson 7.

11. ADJECTIVES

1. Beautiful roses bloomed in the garden.
2. Gay flags floated from tall trees.
3. Happy guests roamed among the rare flowers.
4. The pleasant day ended in a glorious sunset.

In these sentences what words are used to describe the roses, the flags, the trees, the guests, the flowers, the day, the sunset? *Beautiful* modifies the noun *roses*; *gay* modifies the noun *flags*. What nouns do *tall*, *happy*, *rare*, *pleasant*, and *glorious* modify?

In the sentence

5. He, friendless and lonely, longed for home.

friendless and *lonely* modify the pronoun *he*. In

6. Five books are on the desk.

five modifies the noun *books* by telling *how many*.

Words that modify nouns or pronouns are called ADJECTIVES.

DEFINITION. An adjective is a word that modifies a noun or a pronoun.

Not all adjectives number or describe; some of them point out objects; as

7. *This* book is green.
8. *That* man is tall.
9. *These* flowers are growing fast.
10. *Those* books are mine.

The little words *a*, *an*, *the* are always used to modify nouns; therefore they are adjectives. Such words as

some, any, much, more, many, all, such are often adjectives.

11. *Some* books lie on the table.
12. *Any* person can direct you there.
13. *Much* pleasure came to us that day.
14. Send me *more* books to-morrow.
15. *Many* birds live in these trees.
16. *All* the trees are tall.
17. *Such* plants grow in sandy soil.

Make a list of adjectives from the selection from Irving in Lesson 7, and tell what noun or pronoun each adjective modifies.

12. ADVERBS

Section 1

1. Jack worked faithfully.
2. Jessie bore the disappointment cheerfully.
3. Bring the book now.
4. Lay it here.
5. Bring it quickly.

You will readily recognize the nouns, pronouns, verbs, and adjectives in these sentences. After you have done that, the words *faithfully, cheerfully, now, here, quickly* are left. We must find what they are doing in the sentences. *Faithfully* tells how Jack worked; *cheerfully* tells how Jessie bore her disappointment; *now* tells when you are to bring the book; *here* tells where you are to lay it; *quickly* tells how you are to bring it. Each of these words tells something about the verb in its sentence. Words that modify verbs, that is, limit or describe the time or manner or place of the action, are called ADVERBS. They often tell how the action is performed, or when, or where.

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6. I have a very quick temper.
7. You brought the books very quickly.
8. The most faithful student will be rewarded.
9. Jack worked most faithfully.

In the sixth sentence, *very* tells how *quick* the temper is; it modifies the adjective *quick*. In the seventh sentence, *very* modifies the adverb *quickly*. In the eighth, *most* modifies the adjective *faithful*; and in the ninth, *most* modifies the adverb *faithfully*. These words, then, modify adjectives and adverbs. They also are ADVERBS.

DEFINITION. An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

Adverbs often ask or answer one of these questions: (1) *when*, (2) *where*, (3) *how*, (4) *why*, (5) *how much*, *to what extent*, (6) *in what direction*, (7) *how far*. Notions of (1) *time*, (2) *place*, (3) *manner*, (4) *cause*, (5) *degree*, (6) *direction*, and (7) *distance* are therefore said to be "adverbial notions."

Section 2

Find the adverbs in the following sentences. Tell what adverbial notion each expresses, and what verb, adjective, or adverb each modifies.

1. The wolf devoured his prey ravenously.
2. He rewarded his friend handsomely.
3. When are you coming?
4. There goes the train!
5. Birds of a feather flock together.
6. The experiment ended well.
7. We traveled north.
8. Here is your umbrella.
9. Why are you here to-day?
10. The day is exceedingly warm.

11. Jack is very tall for his age.
12. The man spoke rather fiercely.
13. The boy recited very well.
14. The weather was bitterly cold.
15. Swiftly, swiftly flew the ship,
Yet she sailed softly too;
Sweetly, sweetly blew the breeze—
On me alone it blew.
16. She was uncommonly kind.
17. They worked steadily and rapidly, and very carefully.
18. They were particularly careful not to fall.
19. The punishment was unreasonably severe.
20. We could see indistinctly.
21. Discipline was rigidly enforced.
22. The regiment fought bravely.
23. The supplies were greatly needed.
24. The drawing is beautifully exact.
25. Where are you going now?

Section 3

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with adverbs. Tell what each adverb modifies and what adverbial notion it expresses.

1. Did you hear the answer ———?
2. Please speak ———.
3. The students spoke ———.
4. Is the weather ——— cold?
5. The boys ran ——— there.
6. We waited ——— for our turn.
7. Who is the ——— studious member of the class?
8. ——— and ——— she turned away.
9. Is Mary ——— faithful than Alice?
10. The child asked the question ———.
11. I do not hear you ———.
12. Have you grown ——— large for your coat?
13. Is your coat large ——— for you?

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14. Margaret sings ———.

15. Are you ——— comfortable?

13. PREPOSITIONS

Section 1

Hold your book and pencil in your hands. Place the pencil in as many different positions with relation to the book as you can.

1. The pencil is *above* the book.
2. The pencil is *beside* the book.
3. The pencil is now *under* the book.
4. It is *below, upon, across, in* the book.

The words with which you have expressed the relative positions of the two objects are called **PREPOSITIONS**, from a Latin word meaning "to put before." The prepositions in these sentences are put before the noun *book*.

DEFINITION. A preposition is a word that expresses the relation of the noun (or pronoun) that follows it to some other part of the sentence.

Put the following prepositions into sentences:

(1) *Through*, (2) *toward*, (3) *with*, (4) *over*, (5) *after*, (6) *before*, (7) *behind*, (8) *for*, (9) *against*, (10) *from*, (11) *beneath*, (12) *above*.

Section 2

Fill the blanks in these sentences with prepositions. How many different prepositions can you think of for each sentence?

1. Your hat is ——— the table.
2. My dog sleeps ——— his kennel.

3. The name —— my dog is Don.
4. Our cat lies quietly —— him.
5. I place his food —— a plate —— his door.
6. He is a little cross —— strangers.
7. He is fastened —— a strong chain.
8. He tugs —— the chain fiercely.
9. He comes —— me gladly when I go —— his kennel.
10. He will take food —— my hand.
11. He cares much —— me.
12. He often walks —— me.

14. PHRASES

If you look over the sentences in Lesson 13, Section 2, you will notice that a preposition and the noun that follows it make a little group of their own in the sentence. The group as a whole expresses some part of the thought. *On the table* tells *where* the hat is; *in his kennel* tells *where* the dog sleeps; *of my dog* tells *whose* name. Such groups are called PHRASES—PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES, because they are introduced by prepositions.

Read the phrases in Lesson 13, Section 2. Explain what each phrase adds to the thought of the sentence. Find also the phrases in the selection from Irving in Lesson 7.

15. CONJUNCTIONS

Section 1

1. Anna and Kate are visiting their grandmother.
2. The girls read and talk.

When we try to divide these sentences into subject and predicate, we find that they are not quite like the sentences that we have already studied. In the first,

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the words *Anna* and *Kate* are of equal importance in the subject; we are talking as much about one girl as about the other. These two subject nouns are joined by *and*. In the second sentence we assert two things about the girls; therefore we have two predicate verbs. These two verbs are joined by *and*.

3. Washington was called the father of his country, and Lincoln was called the saviour of his country.

This third sentence consists of two entirely separate parts joined by *and*; one part is about Washington, the other is about Lincoln.

The word *and*, then, is used to join words and parts of a sentence. It is called a CONJUNCTION, from a Latin term meaning "to join together."

DEFINITION. A conjunction is a word used to connect words or parts of a sentence.

Other conjunctions will be found in the sentences below. What words or groups of words do they join?

4. You *or* I must go.
5. You must go, *but* I must stay at home.
6. I cannot go, *for* my father needs me at home.
7. You must go, *as* I cannot.
8. Perhaps I can go *if* the weather is pleasant.
9. I can go *when* the weather becomes pleasant.
10. I can go *because* it is pleasant.

Section 2

Supply conjunctions in these sentences, and tell what they join:

1. Sherman ——— Grant were two good generals in the Union army.
2. Johnston ——— Lee were two good Confederate generals.

3. The soldiers on both sides fought faithfully —— courageously.
4. Lee fought in Maryland —— in Virginia.
5. Lee invaded Pennsylvania —— there he fought the battle of Gettysburg.
6. Many soldiers were killed on the Northern side —— many were killed on the Southern side.
7. We were enemies, —— we honor the brave —— faithful soldiers of the other side.
8. Grant was the greatest general of the North, —— Lee was the greatest of the South.
9. Grant —— Lee were educated at West Point.
10. Grant lived in Ohio —— in Illinois.
11. I like to read history —— it tells of brave men.
12. I will tell you a story of Lee —— you wish.
13. This must be the battle-field, —— here are cannon-balls.
14. It was a hard —— terrible struggle.

16. INTERJECTIONS

Section 1

1. Oh, how you frightened me!
2. Oh, I am so sorry!
3. Alas! I can't believe it!

In these sentences the words *oh* and *alas* do not help to make the sentence, which is quite complete without them. These words serve merely to express the speaker's feeling about the fact stated in the sentence. In the first sentence *oh* expresses a startled surprise; in the second it expresses regret. The difference in meaning is shown by the tone of voice in which it is uttered quite as much as by the sentence that accompanies it. In the third sentence, *alas* expresses grief. Such words are called INTERJECTIONS.

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DEFINITION. An interjection is an exclaiming word used to express some strong or sudden feeling.

You will notice that interjections often occur in connection with exclamatory sentences, and that they are sometimes followed by an exclamation point.

The interjection *O* is sometimes used with names when we speak to or call to people, to attract their attention.

“*O* my children,
Love is sunshine, hate is shadow,
Life is checkered shade and sunshine,
Rule by love, *O* Hiawatha.”

O is always written with a capital letter.

Section 2

Read these sentences, expressing the proper emotion with your voice. Find the interjections. Would the sentence express the feeling as strongly if the interjection were omitted?

1. Why! I didn't know you were here!
2. Ah! that was kind of you.
3. Oh, dear! I have broken my new pencil.
4. Oh, mother says we may go!
5. Well! this is unexpected.
6. Fie! don't make such excuses.
7. There! this mending is finished.
8. Nonsense! that can't be true.
9. Oh, the long and dreary Winter!
10. Oh, the cold and cruel Winter!

Write and bring to class five sentences containing interjections. What emotions have you expressed with these interjections?

17. THE SAME WORD AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH

Section I

All words may be classified under the eight heads of nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections. These are called the eight PARTS OF SPEECH.

Sometimes a word belongs to one class in one sentence, and to another class in another sentence.

- 1a. The *stand* is covered with books.
- b. We *stand* near the window.

In *a*, *stand* is the name of an article of furniture; therefore it is a noun. In *b*, *stand* asserts something about the subject *we*; it is therefore a verb.

We must always find out what the word is doing in the sentence before we can decide what part of speech it is. One valuable thing that our study of grammar ought to do for us is to help us to understand exactly what every word in a sentence means, and what it adds to the thought of the sentence.

Find out what the italicized words do in these sentences, and then tell what part of speech each of these words is.

- 2a. Exercise made him a *well* boy.
- b. He did his work *well*.
- 3a. I *love* my mother.
- b. The *love* of money is the root of all evil.
- 4a. Father bought a *fast* horse.
- b. Our new horse can run *fast*.
- 5a. I wish to have a clear and active *mind*.
- b. I *mind* my mother.
- 6a. That man *paints* houses.
- b. The new *paints* are ruined.
- 7a. I *wonder* at that.
- b. It is a great *wonder*.

- 8a. The *buckle* is made of gold.
- b. We *buckle* on our swords.
- 9a. He has a strong *will*.
- b. He *will* not do that.
- 10a. The *drops* of rain are large to-day.
- b. The book *drops* from her hand.

Section 2

Put these words into sentences, using them as the different parts of speech named after them:

- 1. *Thought*—noun, verb.
- 2. *Box*—noun, verb.
- 3. *Walk*—noun, verb.
- 4. *Rain*—noun, verb.
- 5. *Saw*—noun, verb.
- 6. *Hard*—adjective, adverb.
- 7. *Little*—adjective, adverb.
- 8. *Cry*—verb, noun.
- 9. *Hold*—verb, noun.
- 10. *Play*—verb, noun.
- 11. *Long*—verb, adjective, adverb.
- 12. *Bite*—noun, verb.
- 13. *Paper*—noun, adjective, verb.
- 14. *Pen*—noun, verb.
- 15. *Pass*—noun, verb.
- 16. *Start*—noun, verb.
- 17. *Call*—noun, verb.
- 18. *Leave*—noun, verb.
- 19. *Battle*—adjective, noun.
- 20. *Ground*—noun, adjective, verb.
- 21. *Brick*—noun, adjective, verb.
- 22. *Stone*—noun, adjective, verb.
- 23. *Wish*—noun, verb.
- 24. *Run*—noun, verb.
- 25. *Want*—noun, verb.
- 26. *Need*—verb, noun.

II

PREDICATE COMPLEMENTS

18. PREDICATE ADJECTIVES

Section 1

1. The boy is tall.
2. The rose smells sweet.
3. The apple is large.
4. The child became strong.

Copy these four sentences and separate each of them by a vertical line into its complete subject and complete predicate. Underline the subject noun and the predicate verb.

If we should end these sentences when we have said the verb, we should fail to make the statement we wish to make:

The boy is. The rose smells.

In order to complete our statements about the subjects, we need the words that follow the verbs. *Tall, sweet, large, strong* are called **COMPLEMENTS**, because they are needed to complete the predicate.

We now wish to know what part of speech these complements are. Compare the four sentences with these expressions:

A tall boy. A sweet rose. A large apple. A strong child.

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In these you at once recognize *tall*, *sweet*, *large*, and *strong* as adjectives describing *boy*, *rose*, *apple*, *child*.

In the sentence

The boy is tall,

tall is also an adjective describing *boy*. In the four sentences, the adjectives, instead of standing immediately before their nouns, are used to complete the predicate, though they modify the subject. They are therefore PREDICATE ADJECTIVES.

DEFINITION. A predicate adjective completes the predicate of the sentence and modifies the subject.

Section 2

Copy the following sentences and separate by a vertical line the complete subject of each from the complete predicate. Put one line under the subject word, one under the predicate verb, and two under the predicate adjective. What noun does the predicate adjective modify?

1. The shawl was white.
2. Our gymnasium is very good.
3. The boys were successful.
4. The cake tastes delicious.
5. Your ball looks new.
6. My horse was gentle.
7. Your horse seemed dangerous.
8. The bridge across the Mississippi River is very long.
9. The clouds in the west are black.
10. The sky above is blue.
11. The children are now very quiet.
12. The sky was cloudless.

Section 3

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with predicate adjectives:

1. Mary appears ———.
2. The bell sounds ———.
3. The child seems ———.
4. Paul is very ———.
5. The sun shines ——— to-day.
6. I shall study until I become ———.
7. The children are growing ———.
8. Those new houses are very ———.
9. The pleasant sky became ———.
10. The clouds were ——— in the west.
11. The child appeared ———.
12. The water looked ———.
13. The feathers feel ———.
14. The dog seemed ———.
15. The weather is fast becoming ———.
16. The sun has shone ——— to-day.
17. Marie has become ——— in her studies.
18. The weather has been ——— to-day.
19. This morning the sky looked ———.
20. The boy grew ———.

Make a list of the verbs and verb-phrases that you have found in these three sections followed by predicate adjectives.

Section 4

Write sentences containing these adjectives used in the predicate:

- (1) *Sad*, (2) *gentle*, (3) *pleasant*, (4) *short*, (5) *kind*, (6) *merry*,
 (7) *beautiful*, (8) *sweet*, (9) *hopeful*, (10) *black*.

10. PREDICATE NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

Section 1

We have found that adjectives are sometimes used as the complements of verbs. Study the following sen-

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tences to see how they differ from those in the lesson that you have just studied:

1. That man is my brother.
2. That is a large steamer.
3. Those are good books.
4. It is I.

In these sentences, as in those of the three sections you have just studied, the verbs do not make complete predicates. They require the complements *brother*, *steamer*, *books*, *I*. The predicates of the last lesson were completed by adjectives; those in this lesson are completed by nouns and pronouns. These relate in some way to the subject. *My brother* is the same as *that man*; *good books* tells what class *those* belong in. Such words as these, completing the predicate and relating to the subject, are PREDICATE NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

DEFINITION. A predicate noun (or pronoun) is one that completes the predicate of the sentence and relates to the subject.

Section 2

Fill the blanks in these sentences with predicate nouns or pronouns:

1. That girl is my ———.
2. Mary was our ———.
3. My bird's name is ———.
4. Those animals are ———.
5. That book is ———.
6. The tallest boy in the class is ———.
7. The best swimmer in the village was my ———.

Make sentences using the following nouns and pronouns in the predicate:

(1) *He*, (2) *books*, (3) *pictures*, (4) *boat*, (5) *she*, (6) *I*,
(7) *chair*, (8) *desk*, (9) *tree*, (10) *they*.

20. SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS

The complements that we have been studying are sometimes called SUBJECTIVE, because they relate to the subject of the sentence.

Find the subjective complements in these sentences, and classify them as nouns, pronouns, or adjectives:

1. The secret of success is concentration.
2. Tom has become very handsome.
3. The moon shone bright in the clear sky.
4. The trees were numberless.
5. The maid seemed a chieftain's daughter.
6. Man became a living soul.
7. The tents lay silent in the moonlight.
8. He was a ready orator.
9. She grew tall and stately.
10. The day became dark and threatening.
11. The applicant was myself.
12. That person there is he.
13. The green ivy is a rare old plant.
14. In his old age Wordsworth became Poet Laureate.
15. Shakespeare is the most famous poet of England.
16. The picture is remarkable.
17. William was the best skater in the party.
18. The finest picture there was *The Angelus*.
19. Longfellow has been called "The Children's Poet."
20. Oh, why should the spirit of mortal be proud?

21. THE COPULA AND THE EXPLETIVE *THERE*

When the verbs *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were* are used merely to join a subject and a subjective complement, they are called COPULAS, or "couplers." Find the copulas

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in Lessons 18, 19, and 20. You will notice that they have no great meaning in themselves, but simply assert that the subject has a quality indicated by the predicate adjective, as in this sentence:

1. The *ball* is *round*;

or assert that the subject and the complement are the same, as in this sentence:

2. *Rover* is my *dog*;

or assert that the subject belongs to a certain class, as in this sentence:

3. *Dogs* are *intelligent animals*.

These verbs are not always, however, copulas. Sometimes they mean "exist," and then they do not need complements.

4. I think; therefore I *am* (=I exist).

When these verbs make complete predications and therefore have no complement, the subject is not infrequently placed after the verb, while the word *there* stands before the verb in the usual place of the subject.

5. There are apples on the table.

In this sentence *there* is not the subject, for we are telling about *apples*. *There* is not even an adverb, for *on the table* tells where the apples are. *There* merely stands before the verb so that *apples* may stand after it. We may call *there* in such sentences an EXPLETIVE, or word without meaning, used here to change the order of words in the sentence.

The adverb *there* standing at the beginning of the

sentence means clearly "in that place," and is pronounced with strong emphasis. The expletive *there*, adding nothing to the thought of the sentence, receives no emphasis.

In the following sentences tell whether *there* is an adverb or an expletive, and name the subject of the sentence:

6. There are no leaves on the trees.
7. There are our books on that table.
8. There are pictures in this book.
9. Why, there are my gloves!
10. There are some apples there.
11. In the desert there is no rain.
12. There the weary are at rest.
13. In my room there is no desk.
14. On the floor there was a dark red rug.
15. And there shall be no more sorrow.

22. THE OBJECT COMPLEMENT

Section 1

1. Paul lost his hat.
2. Little Anna broke her doll.
3. Walter hurt his sister.
4. Marie makes good candy.

If we read the subjects and the verbs of these sentences, we discover that the verbs alone do not make complete predications. The nouns that follow them make the predicates complete, and are therefore *complements*. If we examine them, we shall see that they are unlike the complements which we have studied before, because they do not relate back to the subject. *Hat* is not the same as *Paul*, nor does it name the class to which he belongs; it is the name of the thing that Paul *lost*; *doll*

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names the thing that *was broken*; *sister* tells who *was hurt*. These complements tell who or what received the action asserted by the verb. In the fourth sentence, *candy* tells what was produced as a result of Marie's action. Such words are OBJECT COMPLEMENTS.

DEFINITION. The object complement is a noun (or a pronoun) that completes the predicate by naming the receiver or the product of the action.

Section 2

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with object complements:

1. Alice writes ———.
2. I possess ———.
3. We found ——— in the brook.
4. They gave ——— to their friends.
5. We see ——— on the tree.
6. Birds made ——— among the branches.
7. In that building they manufacture ———.
8. The carpenter built two ———.
9. They often place ——— on the monument.
10. The stone broke the ———.
11. Put my ——— on the floor.
12. He swiftly threw the ———.

Section 3

In the following sentences find the object complements:

1. We gathered fresh flowers for the vases.
2. They hung the pictures in the music room.
3. On the east side of the house, we planted elms.
4. Jack sent his dog out of doors.
5. Paul shot an arrow to a great distance.
6. Margaret lost her skates at the rink.

7. The artist made a picture of dogs.
8. I like Scott's poetry very much.
9. Put my trunk on the floor.
10. I shall see you to-morrow.

Which of the complements name the receiver of the action, and which the product?

The object complement is often called the **DIRECT OBJECT** of the verb, or simply the **OBJECT**.

Section 4

Some of the following sentences contain object complements, and some contain subjective complements. Classify these complements in two lists:

1. Grace plays the violin well.
2. I am happy in planning for our journey.
3. The new calendars are beautiful.
4. We enjoyed the books you sent.
5. The plants in our garden rapidly grow tall.
6. We have bought new pictures for our school-room.
7. Your photographs are very good.
8. That tall man is my father.
9. Anna gave me some beautiful cups.
10. The pictures in our room are new.
11. We have no money yet for our library.
12. I am certain of some help from our friends.
13. Last night I attended a delightful party.
14. Washington led his army to Valley Forge.
15. Tennyson wrote much excellent poetry.
16. The captain of the steamboat was Robert Gordon.
17. It was a summer evening.
18. His hair is crisp and black and long.
19. My hawk is tired of perch and hood.
20. The poetry of earth is never dead.

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23. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

Section I

Not all verbs require object complements:

- 1a. The wind blows.
- b. The bird sings.
- c. The child plays.
- d. The squirrel runs.
- 2a. The horse eats hay.
- b. The squirrel hides nuts.
- c. The boy reads books.
- d. The artist paints pictures.

The verb *blows* (1a) has no object; nothing is said to be affected by or produced by the action of blowing. The verbs in the first group of sentences are all without objects, i. e., assert actions that do not affect or produce anything. But *eats* (2a) has the object *hay*; *hay* receives the action, is *eaten*. So *nuts* is the object of *hides*; the nuts receive the action, are affected by the action, of *hiding*. *Books* receive the action of the boy who *reads*. *Pictures* are produced by the artist's action in *painting*.

Verbs that (like *blows*) assert an action of which no person or thing is said to be the recipient or the product are called INTRANSITIVE verbs. Verbs that (like *eats*) assert an action of which some person or thing is the recipient or product are called TRANSITIVE verbs.

DEFINITIONS. A transitive verb is one which, in asserting that some person or thing acts, requires an object.

An intransitive verb is one that does not take an object.

NOTE. For a form of the transitive verb without an object, see Lesson 24, Passive Sentences.

A verb may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another. That is because it may vary in meaning:

- 3*a*. The wind blows.
- b*. The wind blows the leaves.
- 4*a*. The horse eats.
- b*. The horse eats hay.
- 5*a*. Walter writes.
- b*. Walter writes letters.

In the sentences marked *a*, we wish to say merely that a certain force, a certain animal, a certain person performs some action, *blows*, *eats*, *writes*. In the sentences marked *b*, we wish to say also that the leaves are moved by the blowing of the wind, that hay is consumed by the eating of the horse, that letters are produced by the writing of the boy. The thoughts to be expressed in *b* are different, and therefore the sentences are different. The word *transitive* means "going over to." The action of the wind in blowing affects or extends to the leaves. The action of Walter extends to the letters which his writing produces.

Section 2

Which verbs in the following sentences are transitive and which are intransitive? Name the object of each transitive verb. Which of the intransitive verbs have subjective complements?

- 1. Wrens build nests in our bird-house.
- 2. Napoleon fought a great battle at Waterloo.
- 3. The British captured Bunker Hill after a hard battle.
- 4. The colonies became independent of England.
- 5. The people elected Washington in their first presidential campaign.
- 6. Chicago has erected a monument to Lincoln.
- 7. We enjoyed the orchestra at the matinee.
- 8. The children seemed appreciative.
- 9. We shall hear *Lohengrin* to-night.

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10. We shall soon visit the art gallery.
11. The Abbey pictures interested us greatly.
12. King Arthur is the center of this group of stories.
13. The library is quiet.
14. The sun sets at six o'clock.
15. Carriages clatter noisily down the pavement.
16. The students make portraits with crayon.
17. The studio is full of their work.
18. They paint landscapes and water-colors.
19. Agriculture is an important industry.
20. We landed at Liverpool.

Section 3

Put these verbs into sentences, and tell whether they are transitive or intransitive:

- (1) *Go*, (2) *see*, (3) *find*, (4) *grasp*, (5) *am*, (6) *act*, (7) *ask*,
(8) *run*, (9) *play*, (10) *break*, (11) *grow*, (12) *become*.

Section 4

Put the following verbs into sentences as transitive verbs:

- (1) *See*, (2) *find*, (3) *build*, (4) *make*, (5) *send*, (6) *take*.

Put the following verbs into sentences as intransitive verbs:

- (1) *Look*, (2) *walk*, (3) *work*, (4) *go*, (5) *seem*, (6) *were*.

24. ACTIVE AND PASSIVE SENTENCES

Section 1

- 1a. John lost the ball.
- b. The ball was lost by John.
- 2a. Eleanor broke her doll.

- b.* The doll was broken by Eleanor.
3a. Fred tore his coat.
b. The coat was torn by Fred.

Here are six sentences, but only three different thoughts are expressed. In group 1, *a* and *b* tell us the same thing, though in different ways. Sentence *a* states that the person named by the subject, *John*, *did* something. Sentence *b* states that *something happened* to the article named by its subject, *ball*. Study the other two groups in the same way. Then you will see that some sentences containing transitive verbs assert that the person named by the subject *acts*, and that other sentences containing transitive verbs assert that the person or thing named by the subject is *the receiver or the product of an action*.

Sentences of the first kind are ACTIVE; those of the second kind are PASSIVE.

An assertion made by a transitive verb only can have this variation in form, for only a transitive verb expresses an action of which something is the receiver or product.

You will observe that all the passive sentences contain verb-phrases. You will also notice that the object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive.

DEFINITIONS. An active sentence states that the subject acts and that some person or thing receives or is produced by the action.

A passive sentence states that the subject receives or is produced by the action.

Section 2

Classify these sentences as active or passive. Change the active sentences to the passive form, and the passive to the active form.

1. Mary painted a picture.
2. The curtain was torn by the cat.

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3. The President appointed a new secretary.
4. General Washington was appointed by the Continental Congress.
5. We do our work carefully.
6. Good bread is made by that baker.
7. I packed my trunk this morning.
8. Those letters were written by my brother.
9. Sarah bought beautiful china in France.
10. This plate was given to her by a German lady.

Find the object in each active sentence.

25. THE REFLEXIVE OBJECT

1. I hurt myself.
2. You see yourself in the mirror.
3. Jack lost himself in the forest.

Each of the transitive verbs in these sentences takes an object meaning the same person as the subject. The sentences say that the person designated by the subject is doing something to himself. In such sentences the objects are *reflexive* objects. The word *reflexive* means "bending back." The action starts from the person named as the subject and, instead of going over to another person or thing (as in most transitive verbs), "turns back" to affect the subject. The reflexive object always means the same person or thing as the subject. It is generally one of the pronouns ending in *-self*.

Put reflexive objects into the following blanks:

1. Paul cut —— with his new knife.
2. They found —— in a dangerous situation.
3. Jessie treated —— to some chocolates.
4. We seated —— in a quiet corner.
5. You will hurt —— if you are not careful.
6. The animal turned —— in our direction.
7. I asked —— about this.

8. Walter covered —— with his cloak.
9. I stationed —— at the corner of John Street and Fulton Avenue.
10. We found —— pleasantly situated.
11. Robinson Crusoe found —— on a lonely island.
12. They lost —— in the woods.

26. THE OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT

Section I

1. They elected Washington President.
2. He called the man his friend.
3. The boys chose Will secretary of the Wigwam Club.

The verbs in these three sentences are transitive, taking the objects *Washington*, *man*, *Will*. But in these sentences the object complement is not enough to complete the predicate. The thoughts are not expressed if the sentences close after the objects. Besides the direct objects, these verbs require also the other complements *president*, *friend*, *secretary*. *President* tells what Washington became; *friend* tells what he considered the man; *secretary* tells what Will became. These complements, which relate to the objects, are called **OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS**. They follow verbs of choosing, calling, naming, making, and thinking. Often, as in the first and third sentences above, they tell what the person named by the object becomes through the action expressed by the verb: Washington became *president* by their election; Will became *secretary* by their choosing. In other cases, as in the second sentence, the verb is followed by two complements referring to the same person or thing, the second of these complements *classifying* the person named by the direct object: he classified the man among his friends.

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The objective complement may be an adjective, modifying the object.

4. His troubles made him *sad*.
5. They considered her *faithful*.

DEFINITION. The objective complement completes the predicate and relates to the direct object.

Section 2

Find the direct objects and the objective complements in the following sentences. Tell whether the objective complements are nouns or adjectives. If they are adjectives, what do they modify?

1. The boys chose Ned captain of the base-ball team.
2. I called her my sister.
3. We thought you very kind.
4. They named the child John.
5. Our success made us happy.
6. Did you call that man your father?
7. The President appointed John Hay Secretary of State.
8. We consider him tall.
9. The accident made him a cripple.
10. The jury pronounced the prisoner guilty.
11. He made himself famous by his own exertions.
12. He declared himself a candidate.
13. He called the island a perfect paradise.
14. They made him keeper of the treasure.
15. Robert's experience makes him a valuable addition to our number.

Section 3

Fill the following blanks with objective complements:

1. They call him their ———.
2. We made ourselves ———.

3. She declared herself ———.
4. They elected Clara ———.
5. She named the child ———.
6. Did you choose him ———?
7. The Senate appointed him ———.
8. I thought her ———.
9. You considered the soldiers ———.
10. The President appointed his friend ———.
11. The people elected Mr. Lincoln ———.
12. The club chose Tom ———.
13. By unanimous vote they made William ———.
14. We call England our ———.
15. We think the English our ———,

Section 4

Write sentences containing objective complements after the following verbs:

(1) *Make*, (2) *call*, (3) *name*, (4) *choose*, (5) *think*, (6) *consider*, (7) *elect*, (8) *appoint*.

27. PASSIVE SENTENCES FROM ACTIVE SENTENCES CONTAINING OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS

Section 1

- 1a. The people elected Washington President.
- b. Washington was elected President by the people.
- 2a. He thought the man kind.
- b. The man was thought kind by him.
- 3a. They chose him secretary.
- b. He was chosen secretary by them.

The above sentences marked *a* are active sentences; those marked *b* are passive. The predicates of the active sentences contain objects and objective complements. Let us see what these become in the passive sentences.

In the passive sentences the object *Washington* becomes

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the subject. The complement *President* still relates to *Washington*; but since *Washington* is now the subject, *President* is a subjective complement. Compare groups 2 and 3 in the same way.

From this comparison you may see that the objective complement of the active sentence becomes the subjective complement of the passive sentence.

Change the sentences in Lesson 26, Sections 2 and 3, to the passive form.

Section 2

Change the following active sentences to passive ones, and the following passive sentences to active ones. Tell what complements follow the verbs in both forms.

1. They found him pleasant.
2. He was made angry by their taunts.
3. They called the child Francis.
4. He was appointed consul by the President.
5. The boys elected Paul captain of the basket-ball team.
6. Dorothy was chosen secretary of her club.
7. We made the poor children happy.
8. Messrs. French and Lang were elected our representatives in Congress.
9. They were considered our best friends.
10. England is called our mother country.
11. The books were made new by fresh bindings.
12. Two boys were chosen delegates from our club.
13. The President appointed Mr. Blaine Secretary of State.
14. France was thought friendly to us.
15. We then considered Mexico our enemy.

Section 3

Write passive sentences containing the following verb-phrases followed by subjective complements:

(1) *Are found*, (2) *was named*, (3) *were made*, (4) *have been called*, (5) *is chosen*.

Put a line under the subjective complement.

28. THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

The analysis of a sentence is the statement of the relation of the various parts of the sentence to each other. Two sentences are analyzed below.

1. The pink flower smells very sweet.

The subject of this sentence is the noun *flower*, which is modified by the adjectives *the* and *pink*. The verb is *smells*, and the predicate is completed by the subjective complement *sweet*. The adjective *sweet* is modified by the adverb *very*.

2. Beautiful gifts have made them happy children.

The subject of the sentence is the noun *gifts*, modified by the adjective *beautiful*. The verb-phrase is *have made*. The predicate is completed by the direct object *them* and the objective complement *children*. The noun *children* is modified by the adjective *happy*.

Analyze the following sentences:

3. That affectionate girl is a very attractive person.
4. The place was called Fort Dearborn.
5. I was considered happy.
6. You have called me captain.
7. California was then made a Mexican province.
8. You have been a good friend.
9. We found there a cool spring.
10. The birds had built many nests there.
11. The Massachusetts Legislature elected Mr. Sumner senator.

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE

1. The king must be an experienced warrior.
2. You think him humble; God accounts him proud.
3. This is the forest primeval.—LONGFELLOW.
4. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.—KEATS.
5. Even silent night proclaims my soul immortal.
6. They found the language a barbarous jargon.
7. Love is sunshine; hate is shadow.—LONGFELLOW.
8. His dislike for books was hearty and uncompromising.
9. There was there a great company.
10. The shower has left the myrtles and the violet bank fresh.
11. Still grew my bosom then.—LONGFELLOW.
12. Far off against the horizon flashes the level line of the Mediterranean.—STORY.
13. I will not call you cowards.
14. The temptation had proved irresistible.
15. Good manners make beauty superfluous and ugly.
16. God breathed into him the breath of life.
17. James was declared a mortal and bloody enemy.
18. Their tempers are rendered pliant and malleable in the fiery furnace of domestic tribulation.—IRVING.
19. Now I have found him. Thou art he.
20. Make thy castles high and fair.
21. Maud forgot her briar-torn gown
And her graceful ankles, bare and brown.—WHITTIER.
22. Enthusiasm had made them Stoics.
23. The noblest mind the best contentment has.—SPENSER.
24. Men called the steamboat "Fulton's Folly."
25. You have proved yourself the bravest of the brave.
26. Time makes the worst enemies friends.
27. Man became a living soul.
28. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.
29. Here the Madonna has a tabernacle of fresh laurel leaves.
30. The last of all the bards was he.—SCOTT.

31. Some days must be dark and dreary.—LONGFELLOW.
32. Sweet are the uses of adversity.—SHAKESPEARE.
33. A merciless oppressor hast thou been.
34. A chieftain's daughter seemed the maid.—SCOTT.
35. It was the schooner Hesperus, and the captain had taken his little daughter with him.
36. Stone walls do not a prison make.
37. A bent twig makes a crooked tree.
38. He was the idol of the younger part of the company.
39. The unwearied sun from day to day
Does his Creator's power display.
40. Macaulay is learned, vivacious, and elegant; Sidney Smith is vigorous and witty.
41. The mountain called the squirrel a "prig."
42. The freshening sea made swimming a terror.
43. All men are created equal.
44. Then rose from sea to sky the wild farewell.—BYRON.
45. The gushing flood the tartans dyed.—SCOTT.
46. Be a hero in the strife.—LONGFELLOW.

29. REVIEW

Find in this paragraph all the constructions that you have studied. Change some of the active sentences to passive forms.

We have been reading a beautiful poem by Longfellow. It is called *Evangeline*. The heroine is a French maiden of Acadia, who lived about one hundred and fifty years ago, when the French colonies were at war with the English colonies. English soldiers were sent to remove the Acadians from their homes. Evangeline's father died before the removal, and was buried on the sea-shore. In the excitement of the embarkation, Evangeline became separated from her betrothed husband, Gabriel. A large part of the poem tells of her efforts to find him. She was near him once on the river; and in her search she even found the home of his

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father, but Gabriel was not there. At last in despair she became a Sister of Charity. One day she recognized, in a poor sick man in a hospital, the lover of her youth. The story is very sweet and pathetic. I enjoyed the music of the verse, and the frequent comparisons suggested to me many beautiful thoughts.

III

THE INFLECTION OF NOUNS

30. NUMBER

Section 1

- 1*a*. The book lay on the table.
- b*. Four books lay on the tables.
- 2*a*. One boy made a home-run.
- b*. Two boys made home-runs.
- 3*a*. A bird built a nest in our apple-tree.
- b*. Three birds built nests in our apple-trees.
- 4*a*. A horse fell on the icy street.
- b*. Two horses fell on the icy streets.

If you compare these groups of sentences, you will observe that the nouns in the sentences marked *a* designate one single person or object; those in the sentences marked *b* designate more than one. Nouns that designate one person or thing are in the SINGULAR NUMBER; those that designate more than one are in the PLURAL NUMBER.

Observe now the difference in form between the singular and the plural nouns in these sentences. The plural nouns show their number in writing by their final *-s*. In speaking, we make the plural of some nouns by adding *-s* (*books*), of some by adding the sound *-z* (*boys*), and of some by adding the syllable pronounced *-ez* (*horses*). These are our commonest ways of forming the plural.

Occasionally the last sound of the noun is changed before the plural ending (or inflection) is added.

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- 5a. We have but one *life*.
- b. Cats are said to have nine *lives*.
- 6a. A *leaf* blew across the walk.
- b. *Leaves* blew into the road.

DEFINITIONS. Number is the property of nouns that shows whether they designate one or more than one.

A noun is in the singular number when it designates one person or object.

A noun is in the plural number when it designates more than one person or object.

Section 2

Put into a sentence the plural form of each of these nouns:

- (1) *Dog*, (2) *pen*, (3) *house*, (4) *picture*, (5) *desk*, (6) *pencil*, (7) *bag*, (8) *curtain*, (9) *bed*, (10) *bookcase*, (11) *letter*, (12) *paper*, (13) *basket*, (14) *tree*, (15) *box*, (16) *loaf*, (17) *knife*, (18) *calf*, (19) *wife*, (20) *shelf*, (21) *pipe*.

How did you form each of these plurals? In which is the final -s pronounced like z? In which do you pronounce the final syllable -ez?

Section 3

Put into a sentence the singular form of each of these nouns:

- (1) *Plants*, (2) *doors*, (3) *windows*, (4) *flowers*, (5) *roses*, (6) *leaves*, (7) *blossoms*, (8) *roofs*, (9) *cases*, (10) *photographs*, (11) *vases*, (12) *lamps*, (13) *cars*, (14) *tracks*, (15) *passengers*.

Section 4

- 1a. They drove an *ox*.
- b. They bought two *oxen*.

From these sentences you will see that the noun *ox* makes its plural with the ending *-en*. Put the plural of *child* into a sentence, and tell what the plural ending is.

- 2a. A *man* ran by the house.
- b. Two *men* ran out of the house.

The noun *man* does not put on an ending to make its plural, but changes the vowel in the middle of the word. Other words of this class are *foot*, *tooth*, *goose*, *mouse*, *woman*. Put the plural of each of these nouns into a sentence.

- 3a. The hunter shot a *deer*.
- b. The hunter saw three *deer*.

The noun *deer* does not show its number by its form. Make sentences containing the singular and the plural of *sheep*.

- 4a. The *brothers* resembled each other.
- b. They were *brethren* in the society.

Here is a noun that has two plural forms. The first is made in the usual way, by adding *-s* (*-z*). This form means "sons of the same parents." The second form is made by changing the vowel of the first syllable (as *foot* and *tooth* do) and by adding *-en* (as *ox* does). This form once meant what *brothers* does now (as in the Biblical story of Joseph and his *brethen*), but now means "associates in the same club or fraternal organization." Put each form into a sentence.

Section 5

Compound nouns (those made up of two or more words) form their plurals in several ways. Some inflect the first part, some the last part, and some both parts.

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1. I have two *sisters-in-law*.
2. The *bookcases* are empty.
3. They keep two *men-servants*.

Put into sentences the plurals of these nouns:

- (1) *Teacup*, (2) *commander-in-chief*, (3) *man-of-war*,
- (4) *blackbird*, (5) *Englishman*, (6) *Frenchman*, (7) *mouthful*,
- (8) *brother-in-law*.

If you are in doubt about any of these forms, perhaps the dictionary will help you.

Letters, figures, and words, regarded as mere words and signs, are pluralized by adding *-s*.

4. Mind your *p's* and *q's*.
5. Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*.
6. He never writes out his *and's*.
7. You do not make your *3's* very well.
8. Your *X's* and *V's* look alike.

Section 6

Some few nouns, from the nature of their meaning, are not used in the plural. Among these are names of qualities and of states of mind (*charity, patience, anger*); names of studies (*botany, arithmetic*); names of forces (*gravitation*); names of metals and other materials (*iron, coal*). With special meanings, however, some nouns of this sort are used in the plural.

- 1a. *Iron* is heavy.
- b. The *irons* are very cold.
- 2a. *Glass* is very brittle.
- b. My *glasses* are broken.
- 3a. *Bronze* is manufactured here.
- b. *Bronzes* are expensive.

Put the plural forms of *botany* and *arithmetic* into sentences. What do the words mean now?

Some nouns have plural forms only.

4. The *tongs* have been lost.
5. The *scissors* need sharpening.

Compose sentences containing these nouns:

- (1) *Oats*, (2) *bellows*, (3) *thanks*, (4) *spectacles*, (5) *vespers*,
(6) *matins*.

A few nouns plural in form are singular in meaning.

6. The *news* was good.
7. *Mathematics* is my favorite study.

Compose sentences containing these nouns:

- (1) *Optics*, (2) *physics*, (3) *ethics*, (4) *summons*, (5) *molasses*.

Section 7

The common titles are pluralized in the following ways:

- 1a. *Mr.* Brown is coming.
- b. The *Messrs.* Brown are here.

We sometimes hear also the less formal

- c. The two *Mr. Browns* are coming.
- 2a. *Mrs.* Smith is here.
- b. The two *Mrs. Smiths* have been here.

We are obliged to pluralize the name because *Mrs.* (pronounced *miss-iz*) cannot well receive another *-s*.

NOTE.—This word was originally *mistress*, which could be pluralized: the *Mistresses* Smith. *Messrs.* is from the French plural *messieurs*.

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- 3a. *Miss* Smith is with her mother.
- b. The *Misses* Smith are visiting their sister.
- c. The two *Miss Smiths* are visiting their sister.
- 4a. *Master* Smith is not in school to-day.
- b. The *Masters* Smith have left school.

Write a letter in which you use, either in the address or in the body of the letter, all these titles.

31. COLLECTIVE NOUNS

Section 1

1. The crew were tired.
2. The company was going away.
3. The mob was excited.
4. The regiment was asleep in the tents.

The subject nouns in these sentences are singular, for we mean *one* crew, *one* company, *one* mob, *one* regiment. Yet these are not ordinary singular nouns, for each names a body or organization composed of many persons. While there are several men in the crew, they compose one organization, and *crew* is the name of that organization. These nouns are called COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

Sometimes when we use a collective noun we are thinking of the individuals that make up the organization, and sometimes of the organization as an entire body. We probably think that the *men in the crew* are tired, but that the *mob as a united body* was behaving in an excited manner.

DEFINITION. A collective noun names a body composed of several individual units.

Section 2

Make sentences containing the following collective nouns:

(1) *Flock*, (2) *herd*, (3) *regiment*, (4) *congregation*, (5) *multitude*, (6) *fleet*.

Tell whether you have meant in each sentence the group, or the individuals of which the group is composed.

32. THE GENITIVE CASE

Section 1

1. Henry was playing ball.
2. The ball struck Henry.
3. Henry's ball is hard.

You will observe that the noun *Henry* has in the last sentence changed its form; it has added -'s. It is still the same word, the name of the same boy. It has changed its form to show that it has changed its relation in the sentence. In the first sentence *Henry* is the subject; in the second it is the direct object; from the third sentence we infer that *Henry possesses a ball*. This relation of possession is shown by the -'s; if you omit the -'s you will plainly see this: *Henry ball* does not indicate possession. When a noun takes a peculiar form in order to show a certain relation to some other word in the sentence, it is said to have CASE.

Nouns showing by their form the relation of possession are said to be in the GENITIVE CASE.

DEFINITION. The genitive case of a noun is the form that shows the relation of possession.

The genitive noun is said to *depend on* the noun that names the thing possessed.

Instead of using the genitive case, one may often employ a phrase beginning with the preposition *of*.

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- 4a. The *bird's* nest was made of rags and sticks.
- b. The nest *of the bird* was cunningly made.
- 5a. The *boy's* father was not at home.
- b. The father *of the boy* was not at home.

Section 2

Write ten sentences each containing a genitive. Put two lines under the genitive, and one under the noun on which it depends. In any of these sentences would the phrase beginning with the preposition *of* sound better than the genitive?

Section 3

The genitive of most singular nouns is made in writing by adding *'s*. In speaking we pronounce the *-s* as *-s*, *-z*, or *-ez*.

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. The <i>man's</i> hat. | 4. The <i>dog's</i> head. |
| 2. <i>Jack's</i> ball. | 5. A <i>fish's</i> fin. |
| 3. The <i>boy's</i> marbles. | 6. A <i>horse's</i> tail. |

Plural nouns ending in *-s* have in the spoken language no genitive ending. In writing, an apostrophe usually follows the *-s*.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 7. The <i>boys'</i> marbles. | 9. <i>Birds'</i> nests. |
| 8. <i>Dogs'</i> heads. | 10. The <i>girls'</i> room. |

Plural nouns not ending in *-s* usually make their genitive ending in *'s*.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 11. <i>Children's</i> toys. | 14. The <i>oxen's</i> labor. |
| 12. <i>Men's</i> wages. | 15. The <i>sheep's</i> fleeces. |
| 13. The <i>women's</i> gloves. | 16. The <i>deer's</i> horns. |

More commonly, however, the *of*-phrase is used for the genitive plural of the words in examples 15 and 16.

17. The *deer's* (singular) horns.
18. The horns of most *deer* (plural).

Nouns of one syllable ending in *s* usually make their genitive singular with *-s*, pronounced *-ez*.

19. *Charles's* hat. 20. *Burns's* poems.

Nouns of two or more syllables ending in *s* or an *s*-sound and not accented on the last syllable add an apostrophe but usually take no other genitive ending, though they are sometimes found with one.

21. For *goodness's* sake!
22. For *conscience's* sake.
23. *Midas's* (also *Midas's*) golden touch.

Nouns of two or more syllables, accented on the last syllable, and ending in the *s*-sound, take the *-s* ending in the genitive singular.

24. *LaPlace's* astronomy.

Ill-sounding combinations in all these classes may be avoided by the use of the *of*-phrase.

25. A sister *of Charles* (instead of *Charles's* sister).

Section 4

Put the genitive singular of each of the following nouns into a sentence:

- (1) *Mary*, (2) *Jessie*. (3) *child*, (4) *lady*, (5) *man*, (6) *Albert*,
(7) *Burns*, (8) *girl*.

Section 5

Use in a sentence the genitive plural of each of the following nouns. Would the *of*-phrase be better than the genitive form for any of them?

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(1) *Horse*, (2) *man*, (3) *hat*, (4) *tree*, (5) *child*, (6) *lady*,
(7) *girl*, (8) *flower*, (9) *chair*, (10) *desk*, (11) *picture*, (12) *box*,
(13) *mouse*.

33. THE PARSING OF NOUNS

To parse a word is to name the form in which it is used and to tell its construction in the sentence.

Examples

1. The stag at eve had drunk his fill.—SCOTT.

Stag is a noun in the singular number and is used as the subject of the sentence.

2. The stag's horn was broken.

Stag's is a noun in the singular number and the genitive case, depending on *horn*.

3. The men's wages were raised.

Men's is a noun in the plural number and the genitive case, depending on *wages*.

4. The sun set behind the hill.

Hill is a noun in the singular number. It is used in a phrase after the preposition *behind*.

Parse the italicized nouns in the following selection:

Still stands the *forest* primeval; but under the *shade* of its
branches

Dwells another *race*, with other *customs* and language.

Only along the *shore* of the mournful and misty *Atlantic*

Linger a few Acadian *peasants*, whose *fathers* from exile

Wandered back to their native *land* to die in its *bosom*.

In the *fisherman's* cot the *wheel* and the *loom* are still busy;
Maidens still wear their Norman *caps* and their *kirtles* of
homespun,
And by the evening *fire* repeat *Evangeline's* story,
While from its rocky *caverns* the deep-voiced neighboring
ocean
Speaks, and in *accents* disconsolate answers the *wail* of the
forest.

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW: *Evangeline*.

Turn to the sentences for analysis in Lesson 28. Parse these nouns:

(1) *person*, (2) *Fort Dearborn*, (3) *captain*, (4) *province*,
(5) *friend*, (6) *spring*, (7) *nests*, (8) *Mr. Sumner*, (9) *senator*.

IV

PHRASES AND VARIOUS USES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

34. PHRASES

NOTE.—Phrases have been explained in a general way in Lesson 14. We now take up the kinds of phrases.

Section 1

- 1a. A *gold* ring was given me.
- b. A ring *of gold* was given me.
- 2a. He is an *honorable* man.
- b. He is a man *of honor*.
- 3a. The books are *here*.
- b. The books are *in this place*.
- 4a. The boy ran *rapidly*.
- b. The boy ran *with speed*.

The adjective *gold* tells what kind of ring, and the phrase *of gold* also tells what kind of ring. The phrase *of honor* means the same as the adjective *honorable*. These phrases, which tell something about an object named by a noun, are ADJECTIVE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

In sentence 3a *here* tells where the books are; the phrase *in this place* in b tells the same thing. *Rapidly* tells how the boy ran; *with speed* expresses the same part of the thought of the sentence that the adverb *rapidly* does. These phrases, which do the work of adverbs in the sentence, are ADVERBIAL PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

- 5. The room was full of smoke.
- 6. The horse was tired of pulling.
- 7. Jack threw the ball farther by several feet.

Let us see what the phrases in these sentences modify. If the fifth sentence ended with *full*, we should ask, "Full of what?" *Of smoke* is to tell us what fills the room. The phrase therefore modifies the adjective *full*. *Of pulling* is to tell us what *tires* the horse; therefore the phrase depends on the adjective *tired*. *By several feet* tells us how much *farther* Jack threw the ball; the phrase must therefore depend on the adverb *farther*. These phrases, then, modify adjectives and adverbs. Since words that modify adjectives and adverbs are called adverbs, these phrases also may be called ADVERBIAL.

DEFINITIONS. An adjective phrase does the work of an adjective.

An adverbial phrase does the work of an adverb.

Section 2

Tell what word each phrase in the following sentences modifies. Classify the phrases as adjective or adverbial.

1. Washington pitched his camp at Valley Forge.
2. A great battle was fought in that year at Germantown.
3. The works of Longfellow were on my table.
4. The Old Guard of Napoleon was composed of the bravest men among his soldiers.
5. The field of Waterloo made an end of the conquests of Napoleon.
6. The fine lines of Byron on Waterloo form a part of *Childe Harold*.
7. The entire poem is an account of travels.
8. That rope is longer by three inches.
9. Trees lose their leaves in the fall.
10. Snow lies on the tops of the hills.
11. The birds in our maple-trees sing in the early morning.
12. The drops of water are falling from the bare boughs of the trees.

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13. We saw rabbit tracks among the bushes beside the road.
14. The cat watches for field-mice in the grass.
15. The mist rises over the edges of the falls.
16. The falls freeze in the winter.
17. We skate on the frozen surface of the river.
18. Late in the fall the birds fly toward the south.
19. We recognize the wild geese by the manner of their flying. .

Section 3

Compose sentences containing these phrases. Are the phrases adjective or adverbial?

(1) *Of blue*, (2) *in the house*, (3) *by the river*, (4) *at Bunker Hill*, (5) *in Boston*, (6) *to New York*, (7) *on the Hudson*, (8) *with my brother*, (9) *after the war*, (10) *in my book*, (11) *above the roof*, (12) *beside my chair*, (13) *of books*, (14) *by two miles*, (15) *on an excursion*.

35. THE INDIRECT OBJECT

Section 1

1. They gave a picture.
2. Alice wrote a letter.
3. Jane made a dress.

In these sentences the verbs are transitive and take the direct objects *picture*, *letter*, *dress*. With them compare the following:

4. They gave *me* a picture.
5. Alice wrote her *sister* a letter.
6. Jane made *Jessie* a dress.

A new word, a noun or pronoun, has been added to each sentence. We must find out what this word adds to

the thought. *Me* tells to whom the picture was given; *sister* tells to whom the letter was written; *Jessie* tells for whom the dress was made. Such a word, standing between the verb and the direct object to tell the person *to* or *for* whom something is done, is called the **INDIRECT OBJECT** of the verb.

The indirect object may name a thing.

7. We made the *book* a new cover.

DEFINITION. The indirect object names the person (or thing) toward whom (or which) the action expressed by the verb is directed.

Instead of the indirect object in the sentence we may use a phrase, which generally stands after the object. The preposition of this phrase is always *to* or *for*.

- 8. They gave a picture *to me*.
- 9. Alice wrote a letter *to her sister*.
- 10. Jane made a dress *for Jessie*.

You can recognize the indirect object by using this phrase test.

In passive sentences the indirect object directly follows the passive verb-phrase.

11. A picture was given *me*.

In many passive sentences, however, the phrase is better than the indirect object.

- 12. A letter was written by Alice *to her sister*.
- 13. A dress was made by Jane *for Jessie*.

NOTE.—The indirect object is rarely found placed after the direct object, as in the following:

Give it *me*.
Send it *them*.

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Section 2

Find the direct and the indirect objects in the following sentences:

1. Grant me still a friend.
2. They sold her five pencils.
3. Her friends told her the sad news.
4. Did you give the bird fresh water?
5. Lend me your ears.—SHAKESPEARE.
6. They brought him their offerings.
7. John's father left him a fortune.
8. The merchant refused them credit.
9. Will you pay my friends the money?
10. Show me your new book.
11. A bushel of apples was given the poor family.
12. The bad news must be told her carefully.

Change each of the above sentences so that it shall contain a phrase in place of the indirect object.

Section 3

Change each of these sentences so that it shall contain an indirect object instead of a phrase:

1. Bring your book to me.
2. She sent some flowers to her sister.
3. The birds made music for them.
4. Our friends found places for us.
5. Jack built a kennel for his dog.
6. Some friends gave these pictures to us.
7. Marie made a dress for her doll.
8. Grandmother left her house to us.

Section 4

Fill the following blanks with indirect objects:

1. Give —— liberty or give —— death!
2. Please bring —— a ton of coal.
3. The mother granted —— their request.
4. John, please show —— your skates.
5. Will you pay —— his bills?
6. I think she told —— the truth.
7. Milton's father gave —— a good education.
8. Victoria's uncle left —— the crown.
9. You may send —— five pounds of sugar.
10. A beautiful watch was brought —— from Switzerland.

Section 5

Compose sentences containing indirect objects after the following verbs and verb-phrases:

- (1) *Have given*, (2) *was told*, (3) *sells*, (4) *paid*, (5) *were granted*, (6) *bought*, (7) *has shown*.

Section 6

From the sentences printed in Lesson 35, Sections 2, 3, and 4, make a list of verbs that take indirect objects.

36. ADVERBIAL NOUNS

Section 1

1. We walked far.
2. We studied long.
3. Come now.
4. The street is very wide.
5. They came much sooner.

In these sentences we recognize *far*, *long*, *now* as adverbs, modifying verbs and expressing distance and time; *very* as an adverb modifying the adjective *wide* and expressing degree; and *much* as an adverb modifying

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the adverb *sooner*. Suppose, now, we wish to make our statement more exact; we may *name* the distance we walked, the time we studied, etc. If we *name* the distance and time, we must use nouns.

6. We walked ten *miles*.
7. We studied two *hours*.
8. Come this *minute*.
9. The street is one hundred *feet* wide.
10. They came a *week* sooner.

From these examples we may see that nouns sometimes modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs directly, as adverbs do, and that in such places the nouns express adverbial notions. These nouns we may call **ADVERBIAL NOUNS**.

DEFINITION. An adverbial noun is joined without a preposition to a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, to express distance, time, measure, or some other notion usually expressed by an adverb.

The adjective that modifies the adverbial noun is usually very important in expressing the thought of the sentence, and indeed often gives the real significance to the noun itself. Read sentences 6-10 once more, and you will see that the definite measure of distance, time, etc., comes very largely through the adjective that modifies the adverbial noun. In parsing the noun, it might be well to say: "*Miles*, which is modified by the adjective *ten*, is an adverbial noun, telling distance; it modifies the verb *walked*."

Section 2

Fill the following blanks with adverbial nouns. The adverbial noun will probably be modified by one or more adjectives.

1. She is —— taller than I.
2. My brother is —— older than I.
3. The hill is —— high.
4. The company came —— sooner than we expected them.
5. The book is —— thick.
6. We traveled ——.
7. The soldiers marched ——.
8. We have walked —— to-day.
9. It is raining ——.
10. She is —— heavier than her sister.
11. Jack threw the ball —— farther.
12. We will go ——.

What question does each adverbial noun answer?
What word does each adverbial noun modify?

Section 3

Pick out the adverbial nouns in these sentences; tell what they modify, and what they express in the thought of the sentence.

1. They came last summer.

Summer, which is modified by *last*, is a noun. It tells the time of coming; it is therefore used as an adverbial modifier of the verb *came*.

2. Come this way.
3. I expected my mother Tuesday.
4. I shall remain a month.
5. The water was rough, but we rowed a mile.
6. That book is worth fifty cents.
7. I went a week later.
8. Will you come this week?
9. That tree is fifty feet high.
10. The river is a mile wide at its mouth.

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11. The well is forty feet deep.
12. My sister is an inch taller than I.
13. We have walked ten miles this morning.
14. Our guests came the week before.
15. I shall start next Thursday.
16. The birds flew south last week.
17. He went home the other way.
18. They will come back next summer.
19. The book cost a dollar.
20. A picture worth a thousand dollars was burned.

Section 4

Write five sentences containing adverbial nouns. After the adverbial noun tell in parenthesis the notion it expresses; thus:

They rode forty miles (distance) in one day.

Section 5

Sometimes, though not often, we may use a phrase instead of an adverbial noun.

- 1a. We went *Sunday*.
- b. We went *on Sunday*.
- 2a. We walked a *mile*.
- b. We walked *for a mile* before we met them.

In which of the following sentences might a phrase be used instead of the adverbial noun?

3. We are going Tuesday.
4. We are going next Tuesday.
5. The child sat quiet five minutes.
6. Sunday morning he walked into the house.
7. We will wait a quarter of an hour.
8. The king will come this way.

9. That day he began to work.
10. I have lived here twenty years.

See also the sentences printed in Lesson 36, Section 3, above.

37. APPOSITIVE NOUNS

Section 1

1. William, the sailor, tied the knot.
2. They sent a petition to Edward, their king.
3. She will try to please me, her sister.
4. We—you and I—will call there to-morrow.

The noun *sailor* stands with *William* in the complete subject of the sentence to tell more exactly who *William* was, or to make some explanation about him. So *king* explains exactly who *Edward* was, and *sister* tells who the person designated by *me* is. The expression *you and I* explains what persons are intended by *we*. A noun or pronoun used thus to explain or point out more exactly what is meant by another noun or pronoun is called an APPOSITIVE, and is said to be IN APPPOSITION WITH the word it so explains. *Sailor* is an appositive of (or is in apposition with) *William*.

DEFINITION. An appositive noun (or pronoun) is used to explain more exactly whom or what another noun (or pronoun) means.

Section 2

Find the appositives in these sentences, and tell with what words they are in apposition:

1. This queen, Mary Stuart, was beheaded.
2. The execution was made by order of her cousin, Queen Elizabeth.
3. I sent the letter to Paul, my brother.

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4. The President, our chief executive, is traveling on the Pacific coast.

5. Margaret, my oldest sister, has gone to Chicago for a visit with our cousin, Mary Gordon.

Section 3

Put appositives into the following blanks:

1. Nero, our ———, is black.
2. I gave two books to Alice, my ———.
3. Our native land, ———, is a republic.
4. Your friend, ———, is going to Europe.
5. The prize was won by Robert, my ———.
6. The general, ———, was my cousin.
7. Mr. Brown, the ———, is a successful journalist.

38. VOCATIVE AND EXCLAMATORY NOUNS

Section 1

1. Child, come here.
2. Nellie, will you bring me that book?
3. Your work, George, is well done.

The proper nouns in the second and third sentences are used to call the attention of persons whom the speaker is addressing. So is the common noun *child* in the first sentence. A noun of address is known as a VOCATIVE, from a Latin word that means "calling."

The word *child* as used in the first sentence is not to be mistaken for the subject of *come*. The sentence is imperative, and does not need to have a subject written or spoken. *Child* merely calls the attention of the person to whom the command is addressed. A vocative noun is never the subject, or the object of the verb, or the object of a preposition. Since it never has any such

position in the sentence, it is often said to be **ABSOLUTE**, or "cut off" in construction from the rest of the sentence.

Another absolute construction of the noun is seen in these sentences:

4. Poor boy! he was hurt in the wreck.
5. Tom! I didn't expect that of Tom!
6. The scoundrel! what will he do next?

Here the absolute noun makes an exclamation.

DEFINITIONS. A vocative noun is a noun of address used to call the attention of the person spoken to.

An absolute noun is one independent in construction of the rest of the sentence, though connected with it in thought.

An exclamatory noun is an absolute noun which makes an exclamation.

Section 2

Write five sentences containing vocatives.

Supply absolute nouns as exclamations in the following sentences:

1. ———! how cold he is!
2. He is worn out with watching, ——— ———!
3. ———! I wish I could help you!
4. ——— ———! he is a miser.
5. ———! he is badly wounded.
6. ———! how much we miss him!

39. THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

To the analysis that you used in Lesson 28 add what you have learned in this chapter; name the phrases and tell whether they are adverbial or adjective; name the indirect objects, the adverbial nouns, the appositives, the absolutes.

1. In Shakespeare's play, *Julius Cæsar*, they offered Cæsar the crown three times.

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The subject of the sentence is the pronoun *they*; the verb is *offered*. *Offered* is followed by the direct object *crown*, and the indirect object *Cæsar*. *Times*, which is modified by the adjective *three*, is an adverbial noun telling about the repetition of the action, and therefore modifying the verb. The prepositional phrase *in Shakespeare's play* is adverbial, telling where we read about the offering. *Julius Cæsar* tells the name of the play; it is an appositive of the noun *play*.

Analyze the following sentences:

2. We expect our cousins from the city next week.
3. Alice, bring me your book.
4. John Adams, our second President, was the father of John Quincy Adams, our sixth President.
5. Yellow violets grow abundantly beside this stream.
6. That fierce tribe of Indians, the Apaches, was removed to the Territory.
7. Poor Jack! he lost his trunk in the fire.
8. Last year they gave me a beautiful vase.
9. Leonardo's masterpiece, *The Last Supper*, is painted on the wall of an old building.
10. In 1864 the soldiers under Sherman marched to the sea.
11. Splendid forests of oak were planted in England in early days.
12. The club made Walter president by a unanimous vote.
13. Do not believe your friend false on such slight evidence.
14. In our late war with Spain, England was considered friendly to us.
15. William Tell called himself a champion of liberty.

Parse the following nouns:

(1) *Shakespeare's* (No. 1), (2) *Alice* (No. 3), (3) *Apaches* (No. 6), (4) *Jack* (No. 7), (5) *Leonardo's* (No. 9), (6) *president* (No. 12), (7) *Spain* (No. 14), (8) *champion* (No. 15).

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE

1. Maud Muller on a summer's day
Raked the meadow sweet with hay.—WHITTIER.
2. In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of
Minas,
Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand-Pré
Lay in a fruitful valley.—LONGFELLOW.
3. That train runs a mile a minute.
4. I arrived one winter morning at five o'clock.
5. I ran the same way.
6. He giveth His beloved sleep.—MRS. BROWNING.
7. I have been twenty years in thy house.
8. The governor granted the criminal a pardon.
9. One morn, a Peri at the gate
Of Eden stood.
10. She told us her dream.
11. Something wicked this way comes.—SHAKESPEARE.
12. I will sing you a song of a beautiful land.
13. To the Druids, the mistletoe, an evergreen plant,
seemed especially sacred.
14. Every shepherd tells his tale
Under the hawthorn in the dale.—MILTON.
15. Burr shot Hamilton, his rival, in a duel.
16. On the first day of the session of Parliament, the book
was laid on the table by the Earl of Sandwich.
17. The ocean eagle soared
From his nest by the white wave's foam.
18. From peak to peak, the rattling crags among,
Leaps the live thunder.
19. The steed along the drawbridge flies.—SCOTT.
20. Enthusiasm had made them stoics.—MACAULAY.
21. The pleasant manners of the child won her the love of
all the strangers.
22. They allowed him an abundance of food.
23. They did the man great injustice.
24. The daughter of a hundred earls,
You are not one to be desired.—TENNYSON.

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25. Multitudes every summer visited the Great Stone Face.—HAWTHORNE.

26. Hands of invisible spirits touch the strings of that mysterious instrument, the soul.

27. All such knowledge should be given her.

28. Cowards die many times before their death.

29. They showed me an immense cave.

30. They worked day and night.

31. She told them part of the truth.

32. We are two travelers, Roger and I.

33. He will not retreat an inch.

34. They promised us their protection.

35. By fire and cloud, across the desert sand,

And through the parted waves,

From their long bondage, with an outstretched hand,

God led the Hebrew slaves.—WHITTIER.

36. I mean you no harm.

37. He gives his parents great anxiety.

38. The snow lay several inches deep on the roof.

39. Then rose from sea to sky the wild farewell.

40. Thou too sail on, O Ship of State!

Sail on, O Union, strong and great!—LONGFELLOW.

41. Through all the wild October days the clash and din resounded in the air.

42. Father, thy hand

Hath reared these venerable columns.—BRYANT.

43. With slow and noiseless footstep

Came that messenger divine.

44. Into the jaws of death,

Into the mouth of Hell,

Rode the Six Hundred!—TENNYSON.

45. Beneath her torn hat glowed the wealth

Of simple beauty and rustic health.—WHITTIER.

46. Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne,

In rayless majesty now stretches forth

Her leaden sceptre o'er a prostrate world.

47. Heaven from all creatures hides the Book of Fate.

48. Tell all the world thy joy.
49. My hawk is tired of perch and hood,
My idle greyhound loathes his food,
My horse is weary of his stall,
And I am sick of captive thrall.—SCOTT.
50. She sat all last summer by the bedside of the blind
beggar.—DEQUINCEY.

V

COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

40. SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES

Section 1

1. Mary came to visit me.
2. Her sister Mildred came with her.

We long ago learned that these statements are called *sentences*, and that each sentence contains a subject and a predicate. To-day we notice further that each of these sentences expresses but *one* thought. The one thing said about Mary is that she *came to visit me*. The only thing predicated of Mildred is that she *came with Mary*. Such sentences, expressing a single thought, are said to be SIMPLE.

It is possible to join these two simple sentences into one sentence that shall contain the two thoughts.

3. Mary came to visit me, and her sister Mildred came with her.

We have then one sentence consisting of two *parts*, or CLAUSES.

Clauses of this sort, expressing thoughts that might have been expressed in separate sentences, are said to be INDEPENDENT; and a sentence containing two independent clauses is COMPOUND.

DEFINITIONS. A simple sentence is the expression of one thought by means of a single subject and a single predicate.

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A clause is a group of words forming part of a sentence, and containing a subject and a predicate.

An independent clause is one which forms a complete sentence when used by itself.

A compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses.

The clauses of a compound sentence are usually joined by some conjunction. The most common conjunctions employed for this purpose are *and*, *or*, *nor*, *but*, *therefore*, *for*. But the clauses may be written or spoken without the conjunction.

4. Mary came to visit me; her sister Mildred came with her.

Section 2

Make of these compound sentences as many simple sentences as you can:

1. Washington was a great soldier and Hamilton was an excellent statesman.

2. I called again, but still no answer came.

3. The vine still clings to the mouldering wall,
And at every gust the dead leaves fall,
And the day is dark and dreary.

4. The way was long, the wind was cold,
The Minstrel was infirm and old;
His wither'd cheek and tresses grey
Seem'd to have known a better day.—SCOTT.

5. The day is done, and darkness falls from the wing of night.

6. He whistled shrill,
And he was answered from the hill.

7. This army is larger, but the enemy is better trained.

8. The house looked dilapidated; windows were broken, shutters were gone, and doors were off their hinges.

9. The sun came out hot, the warm showers fell, and the next week the trees were full of leaves and the ground was covered with blossoms.

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10. Goethe is the greatest German dramatist, and Shakespeare is the greatest English dramatist.

Section 3

Make into compound sentences these groups of simple sentences; for rules of punctuation see Appendix D.

- 1a. Mabel went to school.
b. Paul remained at home.
- 2a. Alice broke her doll.
b. Ellen bought her a new one.
- 3a. I went to visit my grandmother.
b. My brother Fred went with me.
- 4a. He bought some apples.
b. His sister bought some oranges.
c. Their father gave them some bananas.
d. They had a feast.
- 5a. Bells were ringing.
b. Horns were blowing.
c. The boys were giving the school yell.
- 6a. The rain came down in torrents.
b. The winds blew and beat upon the old house.
c. The house fell.
d. The loss was a serious one.

41. THE COMPOUND SUBJECT

Section 1

1. Martha likes to read *Little Women*.
2. Jane likes to read *Little Women*.

We have learned that these two simple sentences may be joined into one compound sentence:

3. Martha likes to read *Little Women*, and Jane likes to read *Little Women*.

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This compound sentence is perfectly correct, but there are in it many more words than we need to express our thought. We might better combine the two sentences, as follows:

4. Martha and Jane like to read *Little Women*.

This time we have not made a compound sentence, because our new sentence does not consist of two separate clauses. It contains one verb, *like*, which has two subjects, *Martha* and *Jane*. The sentence is simple; the subject only is compound.

The parts of the compound subject are here joined by the conjunction *and*. When the compound subject contains three or more words, the conjunction is often used between the last two only.

5. Martha, Jane, Clara, and Ruth enjoy *Little Women*.

Section 2

Write sentences containing as compound subjects these groups of words:

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Books, pencils. | 6. Birds, bees. |
| 2. Jack, Tom, Will. | 7. Roses, lilies, carnations. |
| 3. Windows, doors. | 8. Fires, floods, storms. |
| 4. Elms, oaks, pines. | 9. Carriages, cars, wagons. |
| 5. Pictures, maps. | 10. Work, play, sleep. |

Section 3

The following sentences contain compound subjects. Expand each sentence into two or more simple sentences, and then unite the simple sentences into one compound sentence.

1. Spain and France are European countries.

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Simple { Spain is a European country.
Sentences { France is a European country.

Compound { Spain is a European country and France is a
Sentence { European country.

2. Books, papers, and pens lay on the desk.
3. Tables and chairs were standing in the room.
4. Horses, camels, and donkeys were seen on the streets of Cairo.
5. Kind friends and relatives helped us in our trouble.
6. Ruined temples and palaces are found in those ancient cities.
7. Work and play were enjoyed by the children.
8. Time and tide wait for no man.

It is not always possible to divide the compound subject as above:

9. Books, papers, and pens covered the desk.
10. Tables and chairs filled the room.

42. THE COMPOUND PREDICATE

Section 1

1. John plays football.
2. John studies Latin.
3. John plays football and John studies Latin.

The two simple sentences 1 and 2 may be combined into a compound sentence 3; but it is unnecessary to repeat the boy's name. We might better say:

4. John plays football and studies Latin.

In this simple sentence we have two predicates for one subject—a COMPOUND PREDICATE. The two parts of the predicate are joined by the conjunction *and*. When

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the sentence contains a compound predicate of more than two parts the conjunction usually appears between the last two only.

5. I study, practice, read, or draw every day.

Section 2

Write sentences containing for compound predicates the following sets of words:

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Run, jump. | 4. Looked, saw, enjoyed. |
| 2. Study, learn. | 5. Came, saw, conquered. |
| 3. Seek, find. | 6. Reach, touch, feel. |

Section 3

The following sentences contain compound predicates. Make each sentence into two or more simple sentences; then combine the simple sentences into compound sentences, as in Lesson 41, Section 3.

1. I went home and found my mother ill.
2. We came to see you and found you away.
3. The carpenter worked a year and built an excellent house.
4. They started early and walked three miles before breakfast.
5. Hannibal crossed the Alps and entered Italy.
6. Napoleon entered Belgium, fought the battle of Waterloo, and was defeated.
7. Washington crossed the Delaware, surprised the enemy, and defeated them in battle.

43. COMPOUND SUBJECTS AND COMPOUND PREDICATES

Sentences may contain both compound subjects and compound predicates. Analyze the following sentences:

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1. Robert and George read and play games every evening.
2. Gettysburg and Antietam were two great battles of the Civil War, and were victories for the North.

In the following sentences find the subjects and predicates:

3. Leaves and papers blow and fly about the room.
4. Those shrubs and plants bud and bloom in the spring.
5. Rain and snow fell in the mountains, and produced great floods.
6. Houses and barns were damaged and destroyed in the great storm.
7. Men, women, and children were injured and killed.
8. Birds and bees fluttered about the garden and gathered honey from the flowers.
9. Richard and his brother went out hunting yesterday but did not get any game.
10. My mother and my sister visited our school yesterday and heard our language class recite.
11. Ludwig and his brother came yesterday but left early this morning.
12. John and Charles Norton will go to Chicago tomorrow, but will return soon.

44. THE COMPOUND OBJECT

A transitive verb may have a compound object.

1. The boys are playing *marbles* and *ball*.
2. The children study *arithmetic* and *grammar*.

Write sentences containing these sets of words used as compound objects:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Music, drawing. | 4. <i>Rip Van Winkle, The Legend of Sleepy Hollow.</i> |
| 2. French, German. | 5. <i>Evangeline, The Lady of the Lake.</i> |
| 3. Houses, churches, other buildings. | 6. Desks, tables, chairs, blackboards. |

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45. COMPOUND PHRASES

A preposition may be followed by a compound object.

1. We spent the winter in *Paris* and *Rome*.
2. The streets are covered with *snow* and *ice*.

Instead of using one preposition with two objects, we may use a series of phrases connected by conjunctions.

3. Great fairs were held in *Chicago*, *Buffalo*, and *St. Louis*.
4. Great fairs were held in *Chicago*, in *Buffalo*, and in *St. Louis*.

In these sentences find the objects of the prepositions:

5. The boys amused themselves with baseball and tennis.
6. We have had wars with England, Mexico, and Spain.
7. We spent the summer in England and Scotland.
8. The friends of Elizabeth and Paul are also my friends.
9. The leaves of the oak, the elm, the maple, and the hickory are deciduous.

In the following sentences, change the series of phrases to single phrases with compound objects after the prepositions; and change the phrases with compound objects to series (see sentences 3 and 4 above):

10. The works of Shakespeare and Milton are the pride of English literature.
11. Great battles were fought in 1776, 1778, and 1781.
12. Important ruins were found in Mexico, Central America, and Peru.
13. Those fish live in lakes, in rivers, and in the ocean.
14. I found magnificent pictures in Florence, in Venice, and in Rome.
15. Orations of Patrick Henry, of Webster, and of Wendell Phillips were given in our society.

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46. CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

Section 1

Conjunctions used to join clauses of the same rank and kind (that is, CO-ORDINATE CLAUSES), and parts of compound subjects, predicates, objects, and phrases are called CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

DEFINITION. Co-ordinate conjunctions join sentence elements of the same rank.

Find the co-ordinate conjunctions in the sentences in Lessons 40-45.

Tell what these conjunctions join.

Section 2

Find the co-ordinate conjunctions in the following sentences and tell what they join. If any of the sentences are compound or have compound parts, speak of this fact.

Longfellow and Lowell were American poets. They lived in Cambridge, Massachusetts, and taught in Harvard College. Lowell's home was called "Elmwood" because of the beautiful grove about it. It is near Mount Auburn Cemetery and stands back a little distance from the Charles River. Longfellow lived in a fine old mansion, and the park between his home and the Charles River is called "Longfellow Park" after him. Lowell wrote much humorous poetry, but Longfellow's work is all of a serious character. My brother and I have been reading Lowell's *Vision of Sir Launfal* and Longfellow's *Hiawatha*, and we like them both very much. Rob thinks he should like to be a knight and to wear glittering armor. Lowell was at one time our minister to England, but Longfellow devoted his whole life to teaching and writing.

47. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES OF TIME, PLACE, MANNER, CAUSE

Section 1

We have learned (Lesson 40) that some sentences consist of two or more independent clauses, and are called compound sentences. There are other sentences containing more than one clause, and therefore not simple, in which the clauses are not co-ordinate, that is, of equal rank.

1. The Norman Conquest began *when William invaded England*.

2. Freedom exists *where people are intelligent*.

3. I did this work *as you do it*.

4. I came *because you invited me*.

In each of these sentences the second clause, which is printed in italics, does not make an independent statement; it tells something about the main clause. It cannot stand by itself, for it does not make complete sense; it is therefore called a DEPENDENT CLAUSE. In the first sentence the dependent clause tells the *time* at which the Norman Conquest began; in the second sentence, the dependent clause tells the *place* where freedom exists; in the third sentence, the dependent clause tells in what *manner* I did the work; in the fourth, the dependent clause tells the *cause* of my coming. These dependent clauses are all put into the sentences, not to make some statement of independent importance, but to tell some circumstance about the main clause of the sentence.

Dependent clauses may modify various parts of the independent clause. The four dependent clauses above, telling *when*, *where*, *how*, and *why* something was done, do the duty of adverbs, and are therefore ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

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Dependent adverbial clauses are joined to the clauses they modify by SUBORDINATE conjunctions. *When, where, as, because* are subordinate conjunctions. The meaning of the subordinate conjunction shows what adverbial notion (time, place, etc.) its clause is intended to express.

Section 2

Find the dependent clauses in these sentences, and tell whether each expresses *time, place, manner, or cause*. Name the subordinate conjunction.

1. Wherever you find that family, you find ambitious men.
2. When the call came, they were ready.
3. I did as you told me.
4. I went because you sent me.
5. Come when you have finished your work.
6. I shall buy that book, since you recommend it.
7. When a prisoner first leaves his cell, he cannot bear the light of day.—MACAULEY.
8. When we take a long breath, the chest expands considerably.
9. The boat had touched this silver strand
Just as the hunter left his stand.—SCOTT.
10. While you were here I was very happy.
11. It must have been lost, as I can't find it.
12. Since you were here, I have done a great deal of work.
13. I worked as you told me to.
14. Where the snow falls, there is freedom.
15. He was a soldier of fortune and had fought wherever the Roman eagles flew.—MOTLEY.
16. As one lamp lighteth another nor grows less.
So nobleness enkindleth nobleness.
17. I came because you called me.
18. I found the books after I had hunted a long time.
19. I looked where you told me to.

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20. I looked until I was tired.
21. When July comes, we shall go to the sea-shore.
22. I looked while you were waiting.
23. They have come since you were here.
24. We went away after you came.
25. We were coming when you started away.

Section 3

Compose sentences containing clauses introduced by the subordinate conjunctions that you have discovered in the two sections above.

48. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES OF PURPOSE, CONDITION, CONCESSION

Section 1

Subordinate clauses may indicate other notions besides time, place, manner, and cause.

1. He died *that we might live*.
2. I have come *that I might see your friend*.
3. We will go *if we are invited*.
4. The birds will come *if we throw out crumbs*.
5. We will go to the picnic *although it does rain*.
6. They expected us, *though we had declined the invitation*.

In sentences 1 and 2, the dependent clauses tell the *purpose* of the *dying* and the *coming* mentioned in the main clauses. In sentences 3 and 4, the dependent clauses tell the *conditions* under which "we will go" and under which "the birds will come"; it is not affirmed that these things will occur unless these conditions exist. In sentences 5 and 6, the main clauses tell us that some events will take place *in spite of* the facts mentioned in the dependent clauses; the dependent clauses state *concessions*.

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These are therefore known as clauses of PURPOSE, CONDITION, and CONCESSION.

Section 2

In the following sentences, find the clauses of purpose, condition, and concession, and tell what subordinate conjunctions join them to the main clauses.

1. I came that I might see you.
2. I will come if you ask me.
3. I came though you did not ask me.
4. I was urgently invited to attend if I could.
5. We may go if it is pleasant.
6. We shall come even though it rains.
7. The birds sing early, if the morning is pleasant.
8. My brother has grown very tall, though he is still young.
9. On Saturday we went to the woods that we might study the early flowers.
10. He will give you permission if you ask him.
11. Though the day was bitterly cold, we took our usual walk.
12. Though the war pipes ceased, the echoes continued some moments.
13. If you wish, I will call for you.
14. The house was built that we might have a home of our own.
15. The birds will not come to us, though we throw out crumbs for them every day.
16. If you make a bird-house, they will come.
17. We made several, that our trees might attract the wrens.
18. We built them that the birds might have perfect shelter.
19. I saw you yesterday, though you were two blocks away.
20. I should have spoken to you if I had met you.

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21. I hurried that I might speak to you.
22. I spoke pleasantly, although I was somewhat angry.
23. We went to the woods that we might gather flowers.
24. We found some arbutus, though the season was late for it.
25. You will find arbutus there, if you hunt carefully.

49. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES OF DEGREE AND COMPARISON

Section I

1. My sister is as tall as I am.
2. Their flag is as large as that is.
3. Her picture is as pretty as yours.

From the first of these sentences we understand that "my sister" and "I" both possess a quality of *tallness*, and possess it in an equal degree. From the other sentences we learn that the *largeness* of "their flag" is equal to the *largeness* of "that"; and that the *prettiness* of "her picture" is of the same degree as the *prettiness* of "yours." Such sentences as these contain clauses that tell us that two persons or objects compared possess some quality in an equal degree. The subordinate clauses are CLAUSES OF DEGREE (OR COMPARISON) EXPRESSING EQUALITY.

4. She is taller than I am.
5. This flag is larger than that is.
6. Her picture is prettier than that.

In these sentences also we have clauses of comparison. This time we do not say that two persons or objects possess an equal degree of *tallness*, *largeness*, or *prettiness*, but that one has more of the quality than the other. These sentences contain, therefore, CLAUSES OF DEGREE (OR COMPARISON) EXPRESSING INEQUALITY.

Let us look at the forms of these clauses. The clauses expressing equality begin with *as*, and there is an adverb *as* in the main clause before the adjective describing the quality of which the sentence speaks. The clauses expressing inequality begin with *than*. You will notice from sentences 3 and 6 that we may omit the verb and adjective of the dependent clause; the adjective is omitted from the dependent clause in all six of the sentences, and this omission is usual when the same adjective is intended for both independent and dependent clauses.

7. She is as tall as I am [tall].

But the adjectives may be different.

8. They were as good as they were happy.

Instead of adjectives such sentences may contain adverbs, as some of the later examples will show.

Section 2

Find the clauses of degree and tell whether they express equality or inequality. What words must be supplied to make the clauses complete?

1. They are as happy as we are.
2. My friend is older than I am.
3. The birds are as hungry as they can be.
4. My brother is taller than I.
5. He is much stronger than I.
6. He is as strong as our cousin Rob.
7. My knife is as dull as a hoe.
8. To-day is pleasanter than yesterday was.
9. This hat is newer than that.
10. These flowers are as fresh as mine.
11. The old man's hair is as white as snow.
12. This book is more expensive than that.

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13. Your ring is brighter than mine.
14. My sister is as tall as you.
15. He is as quick as a squirrel.

Section 3

Fill the following blanks with clauses of comparison, and explain what they mean:

1. He is as quick ———.
2. The oak is older ———.
3. The swallow is swifter ———.
4. This pencil is as sharp ———.
5. You are kinder ———.
6. This ribbon is as bright ———.
7. This bird sings as sweetly ———.
8. This bird sings more sweetly ———.
9. She speaks more clearly ———.
10. Jack can run as rapidly ———.

50. THE CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

Classify the sentences, the clauses, and the conjunctions in the following paragraph:

We spend our summers off the north shore of Massachusetts. Our cottage is located where the waves cannot reach it even when they are very high, but on windy days they come near it. One day I had an adventure, and it came near being a serious one. About noon I started for a sail, though the wind had been blowing in the morning, and the weather was still threatening. Before I had gone far, a regular squall struck me, and I was driven in towards some very dangerous rocks. I did not lose my presence of mind, and I managed to take in my sails. I fully expected to be dashed to pieces on the rocks. After I had been tossed about in this way for some time, the wind went down, and I was able to get home. When I reached the cottage, I found my mother nearly wild

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with anxiety. She had watched for me until she had given up hope of my return. She does not wish to go there again next year, because she is afraid of the water. If I can persuade her to go, I shall promise not to go out on stormy days.

51. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

Section 1

1. A gold ring was found.
2. A ring of gold was found.
3. A ring that was made of gold was found.

You have learned that *gold* in sentence 1 is an adjective, and that *of gold* in sentence 2 is an adjective phrase. In sentence 3 *that was made of gold* is a clause expressing the same notion. It is an ADJECTIVE CLAUSE. It modifies the noun *ring*.

DEFINITION. An adjective clause is one that depends on and modifies a noun or pronoun.

Section 2

The italicized adjectives in the following sentences may be expanded into clauses:

1. A *brilliant* gem was purchased.
2. The *courageous* soldier was rewarded.
3. Some *valuable* mines were discovered.
4. "A *soft* answer turneth away wrath."
5. My *kind* friends helped me to gain an *excellent* position.
6. The words of the wise are like *golden* apples in *silver* pictures.
7. My *generous* brother brought me a *little* watch from Switzerland.
8. The *past* summer has brought me a *pleasant* friendship.

Section 3

In the following sentences condense the adjective clauses into adjective phrases or adjective words:

1. A day which was pleasant was spent on the beach.
2. A book that is valuable was lost.
3. The flowers that are fresh are on the porch.
4. Words that have been spoken cannot be recalled.
5. A house that is high was built on that lot last year.
6. I was expected to accomplish some task that was impossible.
7. We saw some trees that were gray with moss.
8. I gave an excuse that was satisfactory.
9. Some birds that could sing were in a cage.
10. In the tree that has lost its leaves there are three nests.
11. I do not wish to do work that is not necessary.
12. I like the book that is new.
13. I don't like days that are rainy.
14. Do you enjoy weather that is cold?
15. I cannot find the book that is old.

Section 4

1. The fire which the boys had built endangered the house.
2. The book that I bought was torn.
3. The man, who is blind, was injured in the street.
4. The man whom you helped is ill again.
5. The child whose hand was cut is better.

In each of these sentences find the independent clause and the adjective clause. The adjective clauses are introduced by *which*, *that*, *who*, *whom*, *whose*. *Which* means the *fire*, *that* means the *book*, *who* means the *man*, *whom* means the *man*, and *whose* means the *child's*. Since these words stand for nouns, designating persons and objects without naming them, they must be pro-

nouns. Each of these pronouns has some work to do in the adjective clause. *Which* is the direct object of *had built*; *that* is the direct object of *bought*; *who* is the subject of *is*; *whom* is the object of *helped*; *whose* is a possessive, or genitive, depending on *hand*. Besides doing a pronoun's work in the adjective clause, these words stand at the beginning of their clauses and connect them to the nouns on which the clauses depend. Since they relate back to the nouns for which they stand, they are called **RELATIVE PRONOUNS**. The nouns to which they refer or are related are their **ANTECEDENTS**; the word is from the Latin, and means "going before."

DEFINITIONS. A relative pronoun connects an adjective clause to the noun (or pronoun) on which the clause depends.

The noun or pronoun to which the relative pronoun relates is its antecedent.

Find the relative pronouns and their antecedents in Section 3. Tell how each relative pronoun is used in its adjective clause.

You will notice that a relative pronoun, no matter what its construction may be, stands at or near the beginning of the adjective clause, close to its antecedent.

Section 5

The relative pronoun *that* as the object of a verb or a preposition is often omitted.

- 1a. The man you saw was hurt.
- b. The man *that* you saw was hurt.
- 2a. The book I told you of is lost.
- b. The book *that* I told you of is lost.

In sentence 1b *that* is the direct object of the verb *saw*, and its antecedent is *man*; in sentence 2b *that* follows the preposition *of*, and its antecedent is *book*. Sentences 1a

and *2a* are just as clear without the relative; but we need to put it in when we explain the connection of the adjective clause to its antecedent.

Put the relative *that* into each of the following sentences. What is its antecedent? What is its construction?

3. The flowers he found were violets.
4. The birds you heard were not robins.
5. I forgot to buy some things I needed.
6. The book he sold was a poor copy.
7. The paper I told you of was burned.
8. The pictures you read about are in Paris.
9. The carriage you came in is ready to go back.
10. Names you like are common in France.
11. The pencils you bought are not very good.
12. The words you spoke are true.
13. The table you wrote on is an old one.
14. The soldier I saw had lost an arm.

Section 6

- 1a. The place *in which this occurred* is now deserted.
- b. The place *where this occurred* is now deserted.
- 2a. The time *at which we were expected* had passed.
- b. The time *when we were expected* had passed.

In sentence *1a* you readily recognize *which* as a relative pronoun joining the adjective clause to its antecedent *place*. The same clause occurs in *1b*; but there it is joined to the word on which the clause depends by the subordinate conjunction *where*. We are certain that the clause is still an adjective clause because it is in the sentence to tell us *what place* is meant, and *place* is a noun. In sentence *2a* the adjective clause is joined to *time* by the relative pronoun *which*; in *2b* it is joined by the subordinate conjunction *when*.

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In these sentences find the adjective clauses, the nouns on which they depend, and the subordinate conjunctions that join the clauses to the nouns:

3. The place where we are standing is historic ground.
4. The critical time in our history was the period when we had no established government.
5. We could not find the place where you told us to meet you.
6. We went at the time when you told us to go.
7. We walked to the cathedral where the relics are kept.
8. At noon we reached the castle whither we were going.
9. I know a bank where the wild thyme grows.
10. I cannot tell the reason why I did that.
11. We soon reached the place whence they had come.
12. Jack came at the moment when his mother called him.
13. We left our books at the place where we bought them.
14. The children soon reached the place whither they had been sent.
15. They came at the instant when they were called.

Section 7

Change the sentences in the last section so that the adjective clauses shall be connected by relative pronouns instead of by subordinate conjunctions. Tell the construction of the relative; tell also its antecedent. Do any of the sentences sound better with the relatives? Do any sound better with the subordinate conjunction?

Section 8

In these sentences find the adjective clauses, and tell how each is joined to the noun on which it depends:

1. The man whom you met is my brother.
2. I found the place where the squirrel had hidden his nuts.

3. They were in an oak-tree that stands on our lawn.
4. The tree, which was injured in a storm, is very old.
5. It was planted at the time when my grandfather settled here.
6. The house that stands here now is not the one that he built.
7. It stands on the very spot where he built the old house.
8. It is in the midst of the grove that crowns the sloping lawn.
9. The trees are full of birds and squirrels, for which we put out food every day.
10. They gather at the porch at the time when we usually come out with our hands full of crumbs and nuts.
11. They remember the places where we are accustomed to throw the food.
12. A few of them, which know us very well, will eat from our hands.

Section 9

- 1a. The man that you saw is my brother.
- b. That man, whom you saw also yesterday, is an old friend of ours.
- 2a. I gave away the book that I bought.
- b. I gave away my new book, which I bought only yesterday.
3. That dog, which is black, is mine.

These five sentences contain adjective clauses, but the relation of the clause to the noun on which it depends is not the same in all of the examples.

In sentences 1a and 2a the clauses tell what particular *man*, and what particular *book*. We are not speaking of *the man across the street*, nor of *the tall man*, nor of *the black-eyed man*, but of *the man you saw*. The clause serves to distinguish this man from all other men in the world; it restricts the application in this sentence of the noun *man* to one particular person, and is therefore called a **RESTRICTIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE**.

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Sentence 1*b* tells us that "that man is an old friend," and adds, moreover, that "you saw him yesterday." From sentence 3 we learn that "the dog is mine," and he is described as a "black dog." Such clauses as these, which add something to the thought or describe the object named by the noun, are called **DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES**.

DEFINITIONS. The restrictive clause limits the application of its antecedent by telling which one of a class is meant.

The descriptive clause adds to the sentence another notion about its antecedent, often a notion of descriptive force.

The descriptive clause is not as closely related to its antecedent as the restrictive clause, because it is not necessary in telling what particular person or object is meant by the antecedent noun or pronoun. The descriptive clause is usually set off from the rest of the sentence by commas; the restrictive clause is not. Often, though by no means always, writers feel that the closer relation is better expressed by the relative *that* and the less close relation by *who* or *which*.

Section 10

Classify as restrictive or descriptive the adjective clauses in the sections above.

52. NOUN CLAUSES

Section 1

- 1*a*. This fact | has been proved.
- b*. That he is honest | has been proved.
- 2*a*. Some | will learn these facts.
- b*. Whoever wishes | may learn these facts.
- 3*a*. Scientists believe | this theory.
- b*. Scientists believe | that the earth is round.

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In sentence 1*a* the subject of *has been proved* is *this fact*. In *b* the fact is stated in the clause *that he is honest*; and this clause, taking the place of the noun *fact*, is the subject of *has been proved* in *b*. Such a clause, because it occupies some position in the sentence usually filled by a noun or pronoun, may be called a NOUN CLAUSE.

In sentence 2*b* the noun clause *whoever wishes* is the subject of *may learn*. In sentence 3*b* the noun clause *that the earth is round* is the object of *believe*.

DEFINITION. A noun clause, or substantive clause, has in the sentence the construction of a noun or pronoun.

In sentences 1*b* and 3*b* the noun clauses are introduced by the subordinate conjunction *that*. In sentence 2*b* the clause is introduced by the pronoun *whoever*, used as the subject of the verb *wishes*. Such a pronoun, meaning "anyone," is called an INDEFINITE PRONOUN. Another sentence containing an indefinite pronoun is Shakespeare's

4. Who steals my purse steals trash.

Examples have already been given of noun clauses used as subjects and as objects. They are found also as subjective complements (see Lesson 20).

5. The hope of Columbus was *that Isabella would give him money*.

They are also appositives of nouns (see Lesson 37).

6. The hope *that Isabella would give him money* led Columbus to the court of Spain.

They also follow prepositions:

7. Have they no sense of *why they sing*?

This last noun clause is introduced by the adverb *why*.

Section 2

How are the noun clauses in the following sentences used, and how is each noun clause introduced?

1. I know where you are going.
2. That Napoleon was a great general cannot be denied.
3. The truth is that he was a selfish man.
4. The thought that he was wrong never occurred to him.
5. He had no knowledge of what made him weak.
6. The English believed that he could be conquered.
7. Their belief was what gave them victory.
8. Men must believe this—that they can succeed in what they undertake.
9. The measure of your strength is what you can do.
10. They do not believe in what we were talking about.
11. What we have been talking about is very interesting to me.
12. I do not know why you have told me this.
13. I know that you speak the truth.
14. Columbus discovered that the earth is round.
15. Have you any theory about why boys enjoy such dangerous games?
16. The measure of what you can do is your strength.
17. Isabella decided that she would help Columbus.
18. Isabella came to the decision that she would help Columbus.
19. That she would help Columbus was the decision of Queen Isabella.
20. I do not know how long I shall stay.

53. INDIRECT DISCOURSE

Section 1

- 1a. Margaret said, "Alice's hat is pretty."
- b. She then asked, "Do you like mine?"
- 2a. Margaret said that Alice's hat was pretty.
- b. She then asked if I liked hers.

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In the sentences of group 1, the noun clauses repeat exactly the words used by another. Such exact, or "direct," quotations, either declarations or questions, make DIRECT DISCOURSE.

In the noun clauses of the sentences of group 2 we have expressed the same thoughts, but not in the exact words of the speaker. Such "indirect" quotations of declarations or questions make INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Section 2

Change the following sentences to indirect discourse:

1. He remarked, "Those men live in sad poverty."
2. "We ought not to neglect them," I replied.
3. "What can we do to make them happier?" he asked.
4. "We might take some of the children to the Park," I suggested.
5. "That's just the thing!" he exclaimed, with great enthusiasm.

Section 3

Change the following indirect discourse to direct discourse:

1. I said that I was going to mount photographs.
2. She said that she would help me this morning.
3. I declared that my work was not hard.
4. She insisted that she would come.
5. I replied that I should be glad to have her company.

54. A REVIEW OF CLAUSES

You have already learned (Lesson 40) that sentences consisting of one independent clause are called *simple*, and that sentences containing two or more independent clauses are *compound*.

You have studied also three kinds of dependent clauses: those used as *adverbs*, those used as *adjectives*, and those

used as *nouns*. Most of the sentences in Lessons 47-53 consist of one independent and one or more dependent clauses. To such sentences we give the name **COMPLEX**.

DEFINITION. A complex sentence contains one independent and one or more dependent clauses.

Some compound sentences contain subordinate clauses. Such are often called **COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES**.

Classify the sentences in the following paragraph as simple, compound, or complex. Tell what kind of clause each dependent clause is, and how it is joined to the clause on which it depends. If it is a noun clause, tell what word introduces it into the sentence.

One summer I made a trip to England and Scotland with my oldest brother, who is a college man. As he had studied literature and history, he was able to explain to me several interesting places that we visited. I enjoyed seeing the homes of the poet Robert Burns at Ayr and at Dumfries, in Scotland. I never realized how poor he was until I saw the house in which he was born. The house is built of a material like plaster, and the roof is of thatch. Two houses in Dumfries were inhabited by Burns. One is near the bank of the River Nith, which the poet mentions often in his works. The other house is in a narrow, crooked street. This is the house in which he died, and it is marked by a tablet on the wall. Burns has fine monuments in Ayr, in Dumfries, and in Edinburgh; for the Scotch people are very proud of their famous poet.

55. THE ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

Section 1

Each clause of a sentence may be analyzed as the simple sentence has been (Lesson 39). But first the relation of the clauses should be explained.

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1. The birds sang sweetly and the whole grove was full of harmony and perfume.

This is a compound sentence. The first clause is *The birds sang sweetly*; the second clause is *the whole grove . . . perfume*; the two clauses are joined by the co-ordinate conjunction *and*. Of the first clause the subject is *birds*, modified by the adjective *the*; *sang* is the predicate verb, and it is modified by the adverb *sweetly*. The subject of the second clause is *grove*, modified by the adjectives *the* and *whole*. The copula is *was* and the predicate adjective is *full*, modified by the adverbial phrase *of harmony and perfume*.

2. If the rains are too heavy, we cannot go.

This is a complex sentence. *We cannot go* is the main clause, and *If . . . heavy* is a subordinate clause of condition. The subordinate conjunction is *if*. The subject of the main clause is *we*; the verb-phrase is *cannot go*. Of the subordinate clause the subject is *rains*, modified by the adjective *the*; the copula is *are* and the predicate adjective is *heavy*, modified by the adverb *too*.

3. The man whom you saw was my father, and he was going to town on business.

This is a compound-complex sentence. The two independent clauses are *The man was my father* and *he . . . on business*; they are joined by the co-ordinate conjunction *and*. The adjective clause is *whom you saw*, which depends on *man*, and is joined to it by the relative pronoun *whom*. The subject of the first independent clause is *man*, modified by *the*; the copula is *was*, and the predicate noun is *father*, modified by the pronoun *my*. The subject of the second independent clause is *he*; the

predicate is the verb-phrase *was going*, modified by the phrases *to town* and *on business*. The subject of the adjective clause is *you*; the verb is *saw*; and the object is *whom*.

4. Jack ran from the room and hid in some place where I could not find him.

This is a complex sentence. Of the main clause *Jack* is the subject. The predicate is compound, containing the two verbs *ran* and *hid*. *Ran* is modified by the adverbial phrase *from the room*. *Hid* is modified by the adverbial phrase telling where, *in some place*; the clause *where I . . . him* is an adjective clause depending on *place*, and joined to it by the subordinate conjunction *where*. The subject of this clause is *I*; the verb-phrase is *could find*, modified by the adverb *not*; the object is *him*.

Section 2

Analyze the following sentences:

1. This volume of letters, which I have recently purchased, is very interesting and contains many of Stevenson's bright notes.

2. We have been sitting for our pictures, and they are very good.

3. Our society, which is the largest in the school, is a debating society, but we have many good times at the meetings.

4. Our question last week was, "Should the rules of the school be made by the pupils or by the teachers?"

5. We decided that the rules should be made by the pupils, but that advice should be asked of the teachers.

6. The boys debated last week and the girls listened with pleasure, though the question was one about athletics.

7. Next week I shall debate on the question, "Is a year of travel in Europe more profitable than a year in college?"

8. My opponent has the choice of sides and has left me the affirmative, which I prefer.
9. I cannot trust him, for he is hasty in his judgments.
10. Till you came, I thought you would disappoint us.
11. After my work is finished, I can drive with you.
12. Before I go, I must finish my work.
13. You may take me where we can see the flowers that are blooming in the park.
14. We found the lost muff as we were coming in.
15. It was the face of a man who ruled himself.
16. I will remain till you send for me.
17. When you send for me, I will come.
18. Since the rainy weather has come, the grass has grown fast.
19. Before you go I will read you this letter.
20. While you are here, I will help you.
21. Before we had reached shelter, the rain came down in torrents.
22. I cannot believe that we have been gone so long.

Section 3

Analyze the sentences in this paragraph:

Robert Burns had a great tenderness for all created things. One day he saw a wounded hare, which some hunter had shot but had not killed, and he was much vexed by the carelessness and cruelty of the hunter. Another time, when Burns was working in the field, a mouse ran out before the plow. The man that was working with Burns would have killed the little creature, but Burns would not permit this. He wrote a tender little poem, *To a Mouse*, in which he expresses his regret for the destruction of the mouse's nest. At the end of the poem Burns says that he is troubled by anxiety about the future, and the mouse is not. At another time, the poet plowed up a mountain daisy by accident, and he wrote a beautiful poem about his sympathy for the flower. Perhaps the suffering of other creatures seemed real to Burns because he had so much sorrow and trouble in his own life.

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE

1. Every failure has a lesson if we will learn it.
2. Whenever that look appeared in her wild, bright, deeply black eyes, it invested them with a strange remoteness and intangibility.—HAWTHORNE.
3. I tell you that which ye yourselves do know.—SHAKESPEARE.
4. The Danube to the Severn gave
The darkened heart that beat no more.—TENNYSON.
5. He who would search for pearls must dive below.—
DRYDEN.
6. The evil that men do lives after them;
The good is oft interred with their bones.—SHAKESPEARE.
7. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.—SHAKESPEARE.
8. Whatever is, is right.—POPE.
9. Call her, king of France, but she will not hear thee.—
DEQUINCEY.
10. Fight on, thou brave true heart, and falter not through dark fortune and through bright.—CARLYLE.
11. They apprehended that he might have been carried off by gypsies.
12. The dew was falling fast; the stars began to blink;
I heard a voice; it cried, "Drink, pretty creature, drink."—WORDSWORTH.
13. Sweet smiling village, loveliest of the lawn,
Thy sports are fled, and all thy charms withdrawn.—
GOLDSMITH.
14. We cannot perceive that the study of grammar makes the smallest difference in the speech of people who have always lived in good society.
15. The living should live, though the dead be dead.
16. I must pause till it come back to me.—SHAKESPEARE.
17. If we wait, and if we work while we wait, we shall not lose our reward.

18. Speak clearly if you speak at all;
Carve every word before you let it fall.
19. Nothing can be great which is not right.
20. No one who has once heartily and wholly laughed can be altogether and irreclaimably depraved.
21. When they came to countries where the inhabitants were cowardly, they took possession of the land.
22. We know what Master laid thy keel,
What workmen wrought thy ribs of steel.—LONGFELLOW.
23. When duty whispers low, "Thou must,"
The youth replies, "I can."—EMERSON.
24. Recollect that trifles make perfection, and that perfection is no trifle.
25. They never pardon who have done the wrong.
26. In the morning I arose with the lark, and at night I slept where sunset overtook me.—LONGFELLOW.
27. The Puritan prostrated himself in the dust before his Maker; but he set his foot on the neck of his king.—MACAULAY.
28. If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.
29. No one is useless in this world who lightens the burden of it for another.—DICKENS.
30. We sit in the warm shade and feel right well
How the sap creeps up and the blossoms swell.—LOWELL.
31. "It is the man that I spoke to you about," said Mr. Pickwick.—DICKENS.
32. The fool speaks all his mind, but the wise man reserves something for hereafter.
33. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
As the swift seasons roll.—HOLMES.
34. Where the bee sucks, there suck I.—SHAKESPEARE.
35. Faithful are the wounds of a friend, but the kisses of an enemy are deceitful.
36. If a damsel had the least smattering of literature, she was regarded as a prodigy.—MACAULAY.

37. When the fit was on him, I did mark how he did shake.
—SHAKESPEARE.

38. Wisely and well said the Eastern bard:
"Fear is easy, but love is hard."

39. Give me neither poverty nor riches.

40. The very insects, as they sipped the dew that gemmed
the tender grass of the meadows, joined in the joyous bridal
song.

41. Who gives himself with his alms feeds three:
Himself, his hungering neighbor, and Me.—LOWELL.

42. Unheard, because our ears are dull,
Unseen, because our eyes are dim,
He walks our earth, the Wonderful,
And all good deeds are done to him.

43. What is so rare as a day in June?—LOWELL.

44. We look before and after
And pine for what is not;
Our sincerest laughter
With some pain is fraught;
Our sweetest songs are those that tell of saddest
thought.—SHELLEY.

45. The Romans were wakened by the cackling of some
geese that they had saved because that bird is sacred to
Juno.

46. Blessed is he who has found his work.

47. Beautiful hands are those that do
Work that is earnest and brave and true,
Moment by moment, the long day through.

48. The snow had begun in the gloaming,
And busily all the night
Had been heaping field and highway
With a silence deep and white.—LOWELL.

49. No man is ever affected by Hamlet or Lear as a little
girl is affected by the story of poor Red Ridinghood.—MA-
CAULAY.

50. The conquered race became as barbarous as the con-
querors were.

51. O Solitude! where are the charms
That sages have seen in thy face?
52. The embattled portal arch he passed,
Whose ponderous grate and massy bar
Had oft rolled back the tide of war.—SCOTT.
53. They that touch pitch will be defiled.
54. Nature never did betray the heart that loved her.—
WORDSWORTH.
55. The man that hath no music in himself . . .
Is fit for treason, stratagems, and spoils.—SHAKESPEARE.
56. Freely we serve because we freely love.
57. Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,
Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,
Our hearts in glad surprise
To higher levels rise.
58. Nature and books belong to the eyes that see them.—
EMERSON.
59. A man is the façade of a temple wherein all wisdom
and good abide.—EMERSON.
60. The insect I am now describing lived three years.—
GOLDSMITH.
61. Speak as you think, be what you are, pay your debts
of all kinds.—EMERSON.
62. I came that Marco might not come.
63. Whatever is fated, that will take place.—EMERSON.
64. They will go to Sunday school through storms their
brothers are afraid of.—HOLMES.
65. "Here he is now," cried those who stood near.—
HAWTHORNE.
66. Sin has a great many tools, but a lie is a handle which
fits them all.
67. I am one of those who believe that the real will never
find an irremovable basis till it rests on the ideal.—LOWELL.
68. The wind bloweth where it listeth.
69. How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood,
When fond recollection presents them to view!—
WOODWORTH.

70. And when above the surges
They saw his crest appear,
All Rome sent forth a rapturous cry,
And even the ranks of Tuscany
Could scarce forbear to cheer.—MACAULAY.

71. His company became very agreeable to the brave old gentleman, whose favorite pupil he was.—THACKERAY.

72. Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together.—GOETHE.

73. He who hesitates is lost.

74. We lose what is certain while we seek what is uncertain.—RILEY.

75. That you have wronged me doth appear in this.—SHAKESPEARE.

76. When honor dies, the man is dead.

77. They made a bargain that they would never forsake each other.

78. God made the country and man made the town.—COWPER.

79. No man has learned anything rightly until he knows that every day is Doomsday.—EMERSON.

80. He who, in an enlightened and literary society, would be a great poet, must first become a little child.—MACAULAY.

81. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight
And all the air a solemn stillness holds.—GRAY.

82. Of all sad words of tongue or pen

The saddest are these: "It might have been."—

WHITTIER.

83. He had a fever when he was in Spain.—SHAKESPEARE.

84. Even a fool, when he holdeth his peace, is counted wise.

85. It has been said that "common souls pay with what they do, nobler souls with what they are."—EMERSON.

86. Has a man gained anything who has received a hundred favors and rendered none?—EMERSON.

87. As heroes think, so thought the Bruce.

88. Every virtue is more fair when it appears in a beautiful person.—VIRGIL.

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89. Any coward can fight a battle when he is sure of winning; but give me the man who fights when he is sure of losing.

90. I wonder when Englishmen will learn these hospitable graces.—STEVENSON.

91. A ruler who appoints any man to an office when there is in his dominion another man better qualified for it, sins against God and against the State.—THE KORAN.

92. When he was come up to Christian, he beheld him with a disdainful countenance.—BUNYAN.

93. Weak-wing'd is song,
Nor aims at that clear-ether'd height
Whither the brave deed climbs for light.—LOWELL.

94. Who shall decide when doctors disagree?—POPE.

95. No success is worthy the name unless it is won by honest industry and a brave breasting of the waves of fortune.—HUXLEY.

96. The men whom men respect, the women whom women approve, are the men and women who have blessed their species.—PARTON.

97. It beareth the name of Vanity Fair, because the town where it is kept is lighter than vanity.—BUNYAN.

98. What in me is dark,
Illumine; what is low, raise and support,
That I may . . . justify the ways of God to men.—

MILTON.

99. Tell me not, in mournful numbers,
Life is but an empty dream.—LONGFELLOW.

100. As we were the first that came into the house, so we were the last that went out of it.—ADDISON.

101. Now came still evening on, and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad.—MILTON.

102. Life is real, life is earnest,
And the grave is not its goal.—LONGFELLOW.

103. Men must work and women must weep,
Though storms be hidden and waters deep.—KINGS-

LEY.

104. Woodman, spare that tree;
Touch not a single bough;
In youth it sheltered me,
And I'll protect it now.—MORRIS.

105. They follow an adventurer whom they fear, and obey
a power which they hate; we serve a monarch whom we
love—a God whom we adore.—SHERIDAN.

106. So work the honey-bees,
Creatures that by a rule in nature teach
The art of order to a peopled kingdom.—SHAKE-
SPEARE.

107. The Accusing Spirit, which flew up to Heaven's
chancery with the oath, blushed as he gave it in; and the
Recording Angel, as he wrote it down, dropped a tear upon
the word, and blotted it out forever.—STERNE.

108. Knowledge expands the mind, exalts the faculties,
refines the taste of pleasure, and opens innumerable sources
of intellectual enjoyment.—HALL.

109. He prayeth best who loveth best
All things both great and small.—COLERIDGE.

110. Each thought on the woman who loved him the
best.—KINGSLEY.

111. A little learning is a dangerous thing;
Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring!—POPE.

112. Seasons return, but not to me returns
Day, or the sweet approach of even or morn.—

MILTON.

113. At the sultry noontide, I am cupbearer to the parched
populace, for whose benefit an iron goblet is chained to my
waist.—HAWTHORNE.

114. When Freedom from her mountain height
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there.—DRAKE.

115. "Dust thou art, to dust returnest,"
Was not spoken of the soul.—LONGFELLOW.

VI

CLASSES AND INFLECTIONS OF PRONOUNS

56. PERSON

Section 1

1. *I* bought a new book.
2. *You* bought a good book.
3. *He* bought an old book.

These three sentences differ in their subject pronouns. When one says *I*, we know that he is talking about himself, the speaker. When one says *you*, we know that he is talking *to* some person whom he designates by that pronoun. When one says *he*, we know that he is talking *about* some person whom he designates by *he*. This change in the form of the pronoun to show whether it means the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of, is the INFLECTION OF PERSON.

DEFINITIONS. Person is the inflection of a word to show whether it refers to the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person spoken of.

The pronoun that has the inflection of person is the personal pronoun.

A pronoun is in the first person when it designates the speaker (or speakers).

A pronoun is in the second person when it designates the one (or ones) spoken to.

A pronoun is in the third person when it designates the one (or ones) spoken of.

Section 2

The following are personal pronouns. Put them into sentences, and tell the person of each.

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(1) *I*, (2) *he*, (3) *we*, (4) *they*, (5) *us*, (6) *she*, (7) *it*, (8) *you*, (9) *my*, (10) *our*, (11) *his*, (12) *its*, (13) *your*, (14) *her*, (15) *me*, (16) *their*, (17) *him*, (18) *them*, (19) *ours*, (20) *mine*.

Refer to Lesson 30 for the definitions of singular and plural number; then write the above pronouns in two lists, one headed *Singular*, the other *Plural*.

57. THE CASE FORMS OF THE FIRST PERSON

Section 1

1. *I* found the book.
2. *My* book was lost.
3. The book is *mine*.
4. The book pleases *me*.
5. They gave the book to *me*.

We notice first about the italicized pronouns that they are all in the *first person*. They designate only one individual; hence they are in the *singular number*. Still there is a difference in form, for which we must find the reason. We see that they do different work in the sentence. *I* stands as the subject. *My* and *mine* show possession. *Me* is the object of a verb in sentence 4, and of a preposition in sentence 5.

This change of form to show that the pronoun changes its work in the sentence is called **CASE INFLECTION**. Compare Lesson 32. The sentences above show that the personal pronoun of the first person singular has three cases: one for the subject, one (with two forms) to show possession, and one to show object constructions.

DEFINITIONS. The **nominative case** is the form of the pronoun used as the subject of the sentence.

The **genitive case** is the form used to show possession.

The **objective case** is the form used as the object of a verb or a preposition.

I is in the nominative case; *my* and *mine* are in the genitive case; *me* is in the objective case.

The genitive pronoun, like the genitive noun, "depends upon" the noun that names the thing possessed.

6. I soon found *my* books.

My depends on the noun *books*.

The genitive case may be a subjective complement:

7. The books are *mine*.

We generally use *my* when the noun on which the genitive depends follows, and *mine* when it does not.

Section 2

1. *We* enjoy school.
2. *Our* school is pleasant.
3. That school is *ours*.
4. That lady teaches *us*.
5. That lady teaches music to *us*.

Let us examine the pronouns first for person. When the speaker says *we*, *our*, *us*, he includes himself; hence these pronouns are of the first person. But he means others as well as himself—one other, at least; he designates two individuals, and therefore the pronouns are of the plural number. All of these pronouns are first person plural. We must account for their difference in form by their different work in the sentence. *We* is the subject, in the nominative case; *our* and *ours* are genitives; *us* in sentence 4 is the object of a verb, in sentence 5 the object of a preposition—is in the objective case.

If we compare sentences 2 and 3, we shall see that the genitive *our* is used when the noun on which the genitive

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depends follows it, and *ours* when the noun does not follow.

Suppose we now arrange in a PARADIGM, or orderly list, the forms that we have studied in Lesson 57.

THE FIRST PERSON

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	I	we
<i>Genitive</i>	my, mine	our, ours
<i>Objective</i>	me	us

Section 3

Put each of the pronouns of the first person paradigm into a sentence.

Tell the number, case, and construction of each of the first person pronouns in the following sentences:

1. We found our friends.
2. They gave a book to me.
3. They gave me a book.
4. I like your dogs.
5. My friend is happy.
6. Bring your troubles to us.
7. Bring us your troubles.
8. Did you see me yesterday?
9. You will find us friendly.
10. You may take our boat.

58. THE CASE FORMS OF THE SECOND PERSON

Section 1

1. *Thou* hast more than he can buy.—WHITTIER.
2. Ah! that thou couldst know *thy* joy!—WHITTIER.
3. All those joys are *thine*.
4. I love *thee*, Barefoot Boy.
5. Blessings on *thee*, little man!—WHITTIER.

6. *You* are invited to the party.
7. *Your* friends are also invited.
8. This invitation is *yours*.
9. They invited *you*.
10. They invited your friends with *you*.

From these sentences we are able to study out the number and case forms of our second person pronoun. We first observe that the singular form is seldom used now except in sacred literature and in poetry. We use *you* in speaking to one individual as well as in speaking to several; the last five sentences you might address to one friend or to several friends. Nevertheless, *you* and *yours* are plural *forms*, even when they are used in addressing one person.

What form of the second person singular is used as the subject in sentence 1? What is the name of this case form? What genitive singular is used before the noun in sentence 2? What form of the genitive is used without a noun following in sentence 3? What form of the word is used as the object of the verb in sentence 4 and of the preposition in sentence 5? What is the name of this case form?

Study the plural forms from sentences 6-10 as you have just studied the singular forms from sentences 1-5.

We may now arrange in a paradigm the forms of the second person of the personal pronoun.

THE SECOND PERSON

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	thou	you
<i>Genitive</i>	thy, thine	your, yours
<i>Objective</i>	thee	you

NOTE.—The custom of addressing a single person as *you* (or with the older nominative form *ye*) goes back as far as the thirteenth century,

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when the English king began to speak of himself as *we* and his subjects began to use plural forms in addressing him. In the days of Queen Elizabeth it had become common to use *you* in polite, courteous, or deferential address for any person, and to use *thou* in speaking to anyone familiarly or contemptuously. This difference in usage has since disappeared; but we retain in ordinary use the plural form only. The *thou, thy, thine, thee* of the singular are used only in poetic and religious language.

Section 2

Put each of the second person pronouns into a sentence.

Tell the number, case, and construction of all of the second person pronouns in these sentences:

1. You will find your book on the desk.
2. I will give this advice to you.
3. I will give you this advice.
4. Thou shalt not steal.
5. That picture is yours.
6. Love thou thy land.—TENNYSON.
7. For seldom have thine eyes beheld
 So glorious a sunset.
8. My friends will call on you.
9. I will meet you at noon.
10. You may meet me at the station.

59. THE CASE FORMS OF THE THIRD PERSON

Section 1

1. *He* is my brother.
2. *She* is my sister.
3. *It* is a good book.

The declension of the third person pronoun is made more complex by the introduction of a new distinction. We use different forms for reference to individuals of the male sex, to those of the female sex, and to objects without sex. These pronouns are said to be of the **MAS-**

CULINE, FEMININE, and NEUTER SEX-REFERENCE (or, as some say, GENDER). *He* is masculine, *she* is feminine, *it* is neuter.

Section 2

From the following sentences we may discover the case forms:

MASCULINE

1. *He* is my brother.
2. *His* brother is tall.
3. The book is *his*.
4. They found *him* at home.
5. They ran toward *him*.

FEMININE

6. *She* is my sister.
7. *Her* sister is agreeable.
8. The book is *hers*.
9. The book pleased *her*.
10. The book belongs to *her*.

NEUTER

11. *It* is a good book.
12. *Its* cover is black.
13. They like *it*.
14. They will read in *it* this evening.

Write in a paradigm the three case forms of each pronoun. Are these pronouns singular or plural?

Section 3

1. *They* enjoy reading.
2. *Their* books are well cared for.
3. Those books are *theirs*.
4. Jack invited *them*.
5. We were invited with *them*.

This pronoun is used in speaking *about two or more* persons or things; therefore it must be of the third person and plural number. Its case forms the sentences show us. Pronounce the nominative form; the genitive forms; the objective form. Is there any distinction for sex-reference in the third person plural?

If we arrange the singular and the plural forms of the third person pronoun in a paradigm, we shall have the following:

THE THIRD PERSON

		<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	
<i>Nominative</i>	he	she	it	they
<i>Genitive</i>	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
<i>Objective</i>	him	her	it	them

Section 4

Put each of the third person forms into a sentence. Tell its construction.

60. COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Section 1

The compound personal pronoun is made by combining *-self* with one of the simple forms. The following table shows the persons of this pronoun:

		<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>First</i>		myself	ourselves
<i>Second</i>		thyself, yourself	yourselves
<i>Third</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	himself	
	<i>Feminine</i>	herself	themselves
	<i>Neuter</i>	itself	

Section 2

The compound personal pronoun is often used as a reflexive object (see Lesson 25).

1. He hurt *himself*.
2. They tired *themselves* by walking.

Rarely the simple pronoun is also used as a reflexive object.

3. I hurt *me*.

The compound personal pronoun sometimes comes after a preposition.

4. He sat by *himself* under a tree.
5. I take the blame on *myself*.

It is also used as indirect object.

6. I bought *myself* some gloves.

The compound personal pronoun is often used to emphasize some noun or pronoun. The pronoun is then said to be used *intensively*; it is in apposition with the noun or pronoun it emphasizes.

7. I *myself* will bring it.
8. She *herself* told me.
9. Jack *himself* found the lost ball.

Section 3

Put compound personal pronouns into the following blanks. Are the pronouns used reflexively or intensively? Tell the person, the number, and (for the third person singular) the sex-reference of each.

1. I —— will attend to this work.
2. We found —— in a dangerous place.

3. He —— believes this.
4. They —— visited us lately.
5. She injured —— seriously.
6. He blamed —— for the accident.
7. You will hurt —— if you are not careful.
8. The bear showed —— to us soon.
9. He struck —— with his Indian clubs.
10. He —— is coming to-morrow.
11. They soon found —— at home.
12. We saw —— far behind in the race.
13. Jessie —— will bring the book.
14. The dog —— was in danger of drowning after he had thrown —— into the water.
15. The book —— was then lost.

61. THE PARSING OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUN

Section 1

To parse the personal pronoun, one should give the person, number, case, and construction. If the pronoun is third person singular, one should name also the sex-reference.

1. She called on me yesterday.

She is a personal pronoun of the third person. It is singular, feminine, and nominative, and is used as the subject of the sentence.

Me is a personal pronoun of the first person. It is singular and in the objective case. It is the object of the preposition *on*.

2. My mother has been ill.

My is a personal pronoun of the first person. It is singular and in the genitive case, depending on *mother*.

Section 2

Parse the personal pronouns in this paragraph:

Dear Sister,—

Your letter reached me yesterday. I am glad that you are having so delightful a time in the country, though I am very lonely without you. Our mother is much better, and I hope she will soon be quite well again. Brother Tom brought her a beautiful bunch of California grapes this afternoon. They are the finest I have seen in the market, and we know he must have paid a fabulous price for them; but he won't tell us how much they cost. I wish I might be with you. The trees must be brilliant up there among the hills now. Please gather some of the prettiest leaves for me. I can press them and keep them on the wall a long time. We shall be ready to welcome you home next week.

Yours affectionately,

HELEN.

Craighurst,
February twentieth.

62. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

Section 1

- 1a. *It* is a good book.
- b. *This* is a good book.
- 2a. *They* are good books.
- b. *These* are good books.
- 3a. *He* is a generous man.
- b. *That* is a generous man.
- 4a. *They* are generous men.
- b. *Those* are generous men.

You quickly recognize the subjects of the sentences marked *a* as personal pronouns. The subjects of the *b* sentences are pronouns, too, for they are used instead

of nouns; but they are not personal pronouns. They are more emphatic than the personal pronouns, because they seem to *point out* the article or person they refer to. If the article or person is near us, we may point to it or to him with our finger as we say *this* or *that*. These pronouns are called DEMONSTRATIVE, from a Latin word meaning "to point out."

This and its plural *these* point out things near at hand; *that* and its plural *those* point out more distant objects.

DEFINITION. The demonstrative pronoun points out definitely the person or object to which it refers.

Demonstratives may be adjectives as well as pronouns. They are adjectives when they modify nouns used with them to name the objects which the demonstratives point out.

5. *This* book is good.
6. *These* books are good.
7. *That* man is generous.
8. *Those* men are generous.

Section 2

Find the demonstratives in the following sentences, and tell their construction. Tell also whether they are adjectives or pronouns, singular or plural.

1. I will speak to that poor child.
2. I do not believe that.
3. Those are my new gloves.
4. I found this by my plate on my birthday.
5. I bought these oranges for you.
6. We did not come for this purpose.
7. These are my best friends.
8. I like these colors very well.
9. What are those men doing?
10. Is this a story or a history?

Section 3

Put each demonstrative into one sentence as a pronoun and into another as an adjective.

63. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

Section 1

- 1a. Alice came here yesterday.
- b. *Who* came here yesterday?
- 2a. You found apples in the bag.
- b. *What* did you find in the bag?
- 3a. You like *Evangeline* best.
- b. *Which* do you like best?

We notice that the interrogative sentences contain, instead of the nouns *Alice*, *apples*, *Evangeline*, the pronouns *who*, *what*, *which*. The questions are asked by these pronouns, which are, therefore, called INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

DEFINITION. An interrogative pronoun is one used to ask a question.

Which and *what* may be used as interrogative adjectives.

- 4. *Which* book do you like best?
- 5. *What* fruit did you find in the bag?

Who means one person or more than one; hence it may be either singular or plural. It has three case forms.

- 6. *Who* came yesterday? (Nominative.)
- 7. *Whose* book is that? (Genitive.)
- 8. *Whom* did you see? (Objective.)

You will observe that the interrogative pronoun or

adjective stands at or very near the beginning of the sentence, whatever its construction may be. Tell the construction of each of the interrogative pronouns in the sentences of this section.

Section 2

Classify each *who*, *which*, *what* in these sentences as adjective or pronoun. Tell also the construction of the pronouns.

1. What books are you reading now?
2. Who is that girl?
3. Which friend shall you invite?
4. Whom did you hear at the concert?
5. What was on the programme?
6. Whose desk is that?
7. For what reason do you think so?
8. Which is your favorite?
9. On whom shall you call to-day?
10. To whom did you give those books?

Section 3

Write sentences containing these interrogative words, and tell the construction of each interrogative.

64. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Section 1

Analyze the following sentences, as you analyzed those in Lesson 51:

1. That man, who is blind, was injured on the street.
2. The man whose son was hurt is ill.
3. The man whom you helped has returned.

The adjective clauses are joined to the nouns on which they depend by **RELATIVE PRONOUNS**.

DEFINITION. A relative pronoun is one that joins to its antecedent the clause of which it is a part.

We had examples of *who*, *which*, and *that* as relatives when we studied adjective clauses (Lesson 51). These words have no inflectional forms for number; the case forms for *who* may be seen in the three sentences with which this lesson opens. *Which* has the genitive *whose*, or the phrase *of which*, the latter being the more common form when we speak of objects.

4. The house, the roof *of which* you may see over there, is a very old one.

The forms are, then:

	<i>Masculine, Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	who	which
<i>Genitive</i>	whose	whose, of which
<i>Objective</i>	whom	which

Who refers to persons, *which* to animals and objects. *That* is used for persons as well as for animals and objects.

Section 2

Tell the construction of each of the relatives in these sentences, and name its antecedent:

1. The boy that you called sells papers.
2. The dog which you bought is valuable.
3. The child, who was seriously injured, was taken to the hospital.
4. The furniture, which is valuable, will be sold at auction.
5. I enjoy those friends, whom I see every day.

Supply the relative in each of these sentences (see Lesson 51, Section 5):

6. The man you called is crossing the street.
7. The child you spoke to is very poor.
8. The tree you speak of was blown down.

Section 3

Put relatives into these sentences and give their construction.

1. My house, —— is nearly finished, is large.
2. The man —— you saw is nearly blind.
3. Birds —— build nests on the ground were common in that country.
4. The child —— you spoke to was pleased.
5. Tents, —— were made of the boughs of trees, were their only shelter.
6. I found the flowers —— you left for me.
7. They received a large insurance for their house, —— was burned.
8. The park, in —— flowers now abound, last winter was desolate.
9. The pictures —— we liked best were most expensive.
10. We have bought new frames for our pictures, —— are fine photographs.
11. We enjoy the pictures, —— our teacher bought in Paris.
12. The blind man —— we saw yesterday was hurt on the street.
13. His violin, with —— he earned his living, was broken.
14. His grandchild, —— led him about, was not hurt.
15. The doctor, —— came with the ambulance, carried him to the hospital.

Section 4

To parse a relative pronoun, tell its construction in

its clause, and its case form if the word has case-inflection; mention also its antecedent.

1. The child to whom you sent the book was pleased.

Whom is a relative pronoun in the objective case; it is the object of the preposition *to*. Its antecedent is *child*.

2. The book that I found was badly torn.

That is a relative pronoun, the object of the verb *found*. Its antecedent is *book*.

Parse the relative pronouns in Lesson 51, Sections 4 to 9.

65. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

Section 1

1. *Each* carried a sword.
2. *Both* were happy.
3. *Some* have been found.
4. *Such* is my opinion.
5. They were not intended for *either*.
6. *None* received the prize.

These pronouns are used, like the demonstratives, to designate objects or persons. But while the demonstratives designate some special or particular person or thing, these pronouns are much less exact in their significance.

Compare these sentences:

7. *This* will be a good subject.
8. *Any* of the subjects will do.

This points out a particular subject; *any* has an indefinite meaning, and is therefore called an INDEFINITE PRONOUN. The list of indefinites includes *all*, *few*, *several*,

many, one, each other, one another, neither, everybody, anybody, somebody, etc. Many of them may be used also as adjectives. With sentences 1-5 above compare the following:

9. *Each man* carried a gun.
10. *Both children* were happy.
11. *Some fossils* have been found.
12. *Such thoughts* come to me.
13. They were not intended for *either person*.

Some of the indefinite pronouns have genitive forms: *one's, another's, anybody's*. None of them shows any difference in form for the nominative and objective cases.

Section 2

Find the indefinites in these sentences; tell whether they are pronouns or adjectives, and indicate their construction in the sentence:

1. I will send you some of my photographs.
2. Many beggars were on the street.
3. Either of the vases will be satisfactory.
4. Any man can accomplish his task.
5. All men are mortal.
6. Some men are born great; some achieve greatness.—

BACON.

7. All of the books were badly damaged.
8. Few have so many advantages.
9. Many would not appreciate them.
10. But no one would despise them.
11. Both sisters were beautiful.
12. We gave presents to both.
13. Neither of the girls liked to sew.
14. Somebody taught them to cook.
15. Few persons enjoy being idle.
16. One should be happy in his work.

17. Several occupations are less trying than this.
18. None would go with him.

Section 3

Analyze these sentences, as you analyzed those in Lesson 52.

1. Who steals my purse steals trash.—SHAKESPEARE.
2. What you say is true.
3. I do not know which you want.

The noun clauses are introduced by the pronouns *who*, *what*, *which*. These pronouns are also indefinites. We distinguish them from the relatives partly by their meaning and partly by their use. *Who* in sentence 1 means "any person"—nobody in particular. It is not, like a relative pronoun, used to connect an adjective clause with its antecedent; it introduces a noun clause, and has no antecedent. *What* and *which* are also indefinite in meaning and introduce noun clauses.

The other indefinites of this kind are compounds of *who*, *which*, and *what*; as *whoever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*.

The only words in this group that take any inflection are *who* and its compounds.

<i>Nominative</i>	who	whoever	whosoever
<i>Genitive</i>	whose	whosever	whosoesoever
<i>Objective</i>	whom	whomever	whomsoever

Like many other indefinites, *what* and *which* and their compounds may be adjectives.

4. *What* pictures I have are good.
5. I know *which* pictures you enjoy most.
6. I shall be pleased with *whatever* cloth you decide on.
7. *Whichever* wind might blow was a favorable wind for our journey.

These indefinite pronouns and adjectives, because they *introduce* noun clauses, always stand at the beginning of the clause, whatever their construction may be.

Section 4

Put the proper indefinites into these sentences, and tell their construction. If the indefinite has a case form, speak of that.

1. ——— does right will have his reward.
2. Bring ——— book you can find.
3. I sent ——— I had.
4. I do not know ——— you mean.
5. Bring here ——— you find on the table.
6. Answer ——— questions she asks.

Find the indefinite pronouns in Lesson 52. Parse them by telling their construction, and, when the word is *who*, the case form.

66. THE CONSTRUCTION OF PRONOUN CASES

Section 1

The noun shows no case inflection except the genitive, which, as we have seen, is the case for indicating possession. Many pronouns, however, have different forms for the nominative and the objective, and these are sometimes confused by persons not carefully trained in the use of the language. The following are the rules for the use of the two forms in common constructions:

A. The subject of the sentence should be in the nominative case.

1. *You* and *I* are to go to the party.
2. *He* and *she* were invited.
3. *We*, not *they*, are the fortunate ones.
4. *We* girls are going to-morrow.

B. As subjective complement the nominative is preferred to the objective.

5. It is *I* (*he, she, we, they*).

C. The object of the verb should be in the objective case.

6. They invited *her* and *me*.

7. The messenger found *us*.

8. He did not find *them*.

9. The man addressed *you* and *him*.

10. They invited *us* girls.

11. *Whom* did you see?

D. The pronoun that follows a preposition should be in the objective case.

12. That lady spoke to *you* and *me*.

13. The soldiers passed by *us*.

14. We have sent gifts to *them*.

15. They sent an invitation to *us* boys.

16. *Whom* did you write to?

E. The indirect object should be in the objective case.

17. We sent *them* gifts.

18. They gave *me* some books.

F. Appositives agree in case with the nouns or pronouns with which they are in apposition.

19. *We*—Robert and *I*—are going to Europe next summer.

20. They sent thanks to their friends—*you* and *me*.

Section 2

Put the proper pronouns into the following blanks, and tell the reason for your choice:

1. Our friends met —— at the door.

2. The play was quite new to ——.

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3. My father sent —— two tickets.
4. Have —— ever seen *Lohengrin*?
5. —— would enjoy it very much.
6. We, Louise and ——, went to the grand opera yesterday.
7. Come to-morrow evening with ——, Alice and ——.
8. —— and —— go frequently.
9. It was —— that went with Margaret.
10. Her father gave tickets to —— and ——.
11. —— girls like *Tannhäuser* the best of Wagner's operas.
12. It seems to —— boys a very serious matter.
13. Mother gave some books to my sister and ——.
14. Mary and —— will come to-morrow.
15. —— boys will organize a new baseball team this spring.
16. A rich gentleman gave —— boys an athletic field.
17. They, —— and her brother, went to the city to-day.
18. —— and —— are going to the city to-morrow.
19. They brought home some pictures to —— and ——.
20. We, —— and ——, will choose some pictures for the schoolroom.

67. THE PARSING OF PRONOUNS

Classify and parse the pronouns in these sentences:

1. Whoever has made a voyage up the Hudson, must remember the Catskill Mountains.
2. They are a dismembered branch of the great Appalachian family.
3. They are clothed in blue and purple, and print their bold outline on the clear evening sky.
4. At the foot of these mountains, one discovers a little village, whose roofs gleam among the trees.
5. In one of the houses lived Rip Van Winkle.
6. He was a descendant of the Van Winkles who figured

so gallantly in the days of Peter Stuyvesant, and accompanied him to the siege of Fort Christina.

7. He inherited little of the martial character of his ancestors.

8. He did not like his farm; everything about it went wrong.

9. His children were as ragged and as wild as if they belonged to nobody.

10. His idleness provoked his wife, and her tongue was incessantly scolding.

11. Rip's best friend was his dog Wolf, who was also hen-pecked; for Dame Van Winkle regarded them as companions in idleness.

12. "Poor Wolf!" Rip would say, "thy mistress beats thee, but while I live thou shalt never want a friend."

13. In the mountains one day, after a long tramp, he lay down and slept, they say, many years. His beard grew long and white, his dog died, and his gun decayed. Everyone thought he had perished.

14. Rip's story was soon told. The neighbors stared when they heard it; some winked at each other, and put their tongues in their cheeks; and the self-important man, who, when the alarm was over, had returned to the field, screwed down the corners of his mouth, and shook his head.

15. "It is Rip Van Winkle—it is himself! Where have you been these twenty long years?"

16. He told his story to every stranger that arrived at the hotel.

17. It was the story that I have related, and everyone soon knew it by heart.

18. Some doubted it; others gave it full credit.

19. When they hear a thunderstorm, they say that Henry Hudson and his crew are at their game of nine-pins.

20. This story may seem incredible to many, but I give it my full belief, for I know that strange things happened in our old Dutch settlements.

VII

CLASSES AND INFLECTIONS OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

68. THE CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES

Section I

Most adjectives serve to tell some quality of the nouns they modify; that is, they are **DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES**.

1. A *beautiful red* rose.
2. A *tall, light-haired* boy.
3. A *happy* child.

Others serve to point out or designate. Among these are the **DEMONSTRATIVES** (see Lesson 62).

4. *That* book; *those* words; *this* hat; *these* boxes; *yonder* tower.

The **INDEFINITES** also designate, but with less exactness than the demonstratives (see Lesson 65).

5. *Each* man; *every* child; *many* birds; *all* books; *some* pens.

Some adjectives indicate number, and are called **NUMERALS**. The **CARDINALS**, which indicate simple number, are:

6. One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, etc.

The **ORDINALS**, which indicate order or position, are:

7. First, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, etc.

Two words, *a* (*an*) and *the*, are called ARTICLES. *A* (*an*) means any one of the class designated by the noun, while *the* means one particular one. *A* is, therefore, the INDEFINITE ARTICLE, and *the* is the DEFINITE ARTICLE. Compare these:

8. *A* man passed by, holding up *an* apple.
9. *The* man passed by.

An like *a*, is an indefinite article. It is used instead of *a* when the word following begins with a vowel sound, so that the *a* would not sound well before it.

10. *An* article; *an* orange; *an* easel; *an* ill wind.
11. *A* book; *a* house; *a* desk; *a* eulogy; *a* university.

Section 2

Classify the adjectives in the following sentences, and tell what they modify:

1. This is the forest primeval. The murmuring pines and the hemlocks,
Bearded with moss, and in garments green, indistinct in the twilight,
Stand like Druids of eld, with voices sad and prophetic,
Stand like harpers hoar, with beards that rest on their bosoms.
2. Loud from its rocky caverns, the deep-voiced neighboring ocean
Speaks, and in accents disconsolate answers the wail of the forest.
3. Only along the shore of the mournful and misty Atlantic
Linger a few Acadian peasants, whose fathers from exile
Wandered back to their native land to die in its bosom.—LONGFELLOW.
4. "Build me straight, O worthy Master!
Stanch and strong, a goodly vessel."

5. The merchant's word
Delighted the Master heard.—LONGFELLOW.
6. From yonder ivy-mantled tower
The moping owl does to the moon complain
Of such as, wandering near her secret bower,
Molest her ancient solitary reign.—GRAY.
7. Thirty days have September,
April, June, and November.
8. Among the musical disciples who assembled, one evening in each week, to receive instruction in psalmody, was Katrina Van Tassel, the daughter and only child of a substantial Dutch farmer.
9. She was a blooming lass of fresh eighteen; plump as a partridge; ripe and melting and rosy-cheeked as one of her father's peaches; and universally famed, not merely for her beauty, but also for her vast expectations.
10. Old Baltus Van Tassel was a perfect picture of a thriving, contented, liberal-hearted farmer.—IRVING.
11. The seventh son of a seventh son has remarkable gifts.
12. The sea in every direction was of a deep blue color.—DANA.

69. ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS

The usual office of an adjective is to modify a noun. But an adjective not infrequently takes the place of its noun as subject, object, etc., in the sentence.

1. The *good* are the *great*; i. e., the good *persons* are the great *persons*.
2. "The *loving* are the *daring*;" i. e., the loving *men and women* are the daring *men and women*.
3. "None but the *brave* deserve the *fair*;" i. e., none but brave *men* deserve fair *ladies*.

Good and *loving* are adjectives used without their nouns as subjects of their sentences. *Great* and *daring* are subjective complements. *Brave* is an adjective fol-

lowing the preposition *but* without its noun. *Fair* is an adjective used without its noun as the object of *deserve*. The article is used before the adjective as if the noun were in the sentence.

Put these adjectives into sentences without their nouns, and tell their constructions:

(1) *Kind*, (2) *patient*, (3) *generous*, (4) *tender*, (5) *joyful*, (6) *best*, (7) *finest*, (8) *loudest*.

70. THE CLASSES OF ADVERBS

Section 1

1. The horse ran *fast*.
2. We walked *wearily* over the hill.
3. They are coming *soon*.
4. She started *yesterday*.
5. Anne came *here*.
6. He fell *backward*.
7. We were *greatly* pleased with the music.
8. The children appear *very* happy.
9. We told *why* we came.

The adverbs in sentences 1 and 2 tell *how*, *in what manner*, and are called adverbs of MANNER. In sentences 3 and 4 they express TIME. In sentences 5 and 6 they tell the *place* and the *direction*, and are called adverbs of PLACE. In sentences 7 and 8 they tell *how much*, *to what degree*, and are therefore adverbs of DEGREE. In sentence 9 the adverb expresses the notion of CAUSE.

We find, then, adverbs of manner, time, place, degree, and cause.

Besides these, there are the negative adverb *not*; the adverbs that strengthen a statement, as *surely*, *certainly*; and those that speak of the statement as a likely or possible thing, as *probably*; these are MODAL ADVERBS.

Adverbs sometimes ask the questions *how*, *when*, *where*, and *why*, instead of answering them; then the adverb makes the sentence interrogative.

10. *How* do you feel to-day?
11. *Where* are you going?
12. *When* are you coming?
13. *Why* do you think so?

Section 2

Classify the adverbs in the following sentences, and tell what they modify:

1. Jack can run very rapidly.
2. Mary found my thimble quickly.
3. We came here to-day.
4. We traveled more slowly.
5. How did you enjoy the pictures yesterday?
6. We liked them exceedingly.
7. When did you visit the gallery?
8. We went early.
9. Where did you stand to look at the large picture?
10. We stood close to it.
11. We liked the landscapes best.
12. I enjoyed one of the portraits most.
13. How long will the collection be here?
14. It will soon be taken to Chicago.
15. Why do they remove it?
16. I do not believe the report.
17. Perhaps it will soon be contradicted.
18. Surely it will be disputed.

71. VARIETY IN ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS

Section 1

Sometimes a writer who wishes to express an adverbial notion has his choice between an adverb, a phrase, and a clause that in meaning are practically equivalent.

- a. *Meanwhile* we were sailing down the river *very rapidly*.
- b. *In the meantime* we were sailing down the river *at full speed*.
- c. *While this was going on*, we were sailing down the river *as fast as we could*.

There is no rule as to which expression is best. The writer must decide in each case. He should be careful in every composition to exhibit some variety in his sentence structure, and to use pleasant combinations of words. When you are writing, compare the various ways of expressing your thought and choose the best.

Section 2

Put the following expressions into sentences on the model of the example above, and tell what adverbial notion is expressed in each group:

- 1. Immediately, at once, without delay, as soon as you can.
- 2. Always, in every case, without exception.
- 3. Therefore, for this reason, since this is true.
- 4. Anxiously, in great anxiety, for he was very anxious.
- 5. Later, after a time, after considerable time had elapsed.
- 6. Soon, in a short time, after a little time had passed.
- 7. Here, in this place.
- 8. There, in that place.
- 9. Moreover, besides, besides all this.
- 10. How, in what manner.
- 11. Then, at that time, when that had taken place.
- 12. Kindly, in a kindly manner, with kindness.

72. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

Section 1

- 1. Paul is strong.
- 2. Paul is stronger than Jack.
- 3. Paul is the strongest boy in school.

All of these sentences assert that Paul has the quality named *strength*. In the first we say merely that he has the quality, without comparing the degree in which he possesses it with the degree in which any other person possesses it. In the second we say that both Paul and Jack have strength, and that Paul has the quality in a greater degree than Jack. In the third we go still further; we compare Paul with all the other boys in the school, and assert that he has the highest degree of strength.

We have expressed all these things briefly in our sentences by inflecting the adjectives. The adjective in the sentence that says merely that Paul has strength is in the simplest form—*strong*. The adjective in the sentence that says that he has more strength than Jack is *strong-er*. The adjective in the sentence that says that he has the most strength of all is *strong-est*. These are the three DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

DEFINITIONS. The degrees of comparison of the adjective indicate the extent to which the object named by the noun modified possesses the quality described by the adjective.

The positive degree denotes mere possession of the quality, without making any comparison.

The comparative degree denotes that the object named by the noun which the adjective modifies has a greater degree of the quality than some other object.

The superlative degree denotes that the object named by the noun modified possesses the quality in the highest degree.

The positive degree is the simplest form of the adjective: *long, high, sweet*.

The comparative degree is generally formed by adding *-er* to the positive form: *longer, higher, sweeter*.

The superlative degree is generally formed by adding *-est* to the positive: *longest, highest, sweetest*.

Section 2

Make three columns headed *Positive*, *Comparative*, *Superlative*. Put the three degrees of comparison of these adjectives into the proper columns. Then make sentences containing five adjectives from each column.

(1) *Bright*, (2) *small*, (3) *fine*, (4) *thin*, (5) *gentle*, (6) *tall*, (7) *old*, (8) *short*, (9) *large*, (10) *light*, (11) *dark*, (12) *new*.

Section 3

In the following sentences tell what each adjective modifies and what degree of comparison it is in:

1. The largest boy in our class has been promoted.
2. I shall take only my smallest trunk.
3. That little child has no home.
4. He has a younger brother.
5. My picture is longer than yours.
6. The lines of your drawing are straighter than those of mine.
7. Paul is the bravest boy on our playground.
8. His highest ambition is to be an architect.
9. His brother's ambition is nobler.
10. Last night we heard some great music.

Section 4

Some adjectives are compared not with the inflectional endings *-er* and *-est*, but by the use of the adverbs *more* and *most* before them. This method is used when the adjective is so long that an additional syllable would be awkward, or when for some reason the use of the *-er* and *-est* would be unpleasant in sound.

1. The red rose is *beautiful*.
2. The pink rose is *more beautiful*.
3. The white rose is *most beautiful* of all.

Compare the following adjectives:

(1) *Difficult*, (2) *sensitive*, (3) *magnificent*, (4) *fearful*, (5) *monstrous*, (6) *joyful*, (7) *gracious*, (8) *blessed*, (9) *precious*, (10) *generous*.

Some adjectives may be compared in either way:
gentle, *gentler* or *more gentle*, *gentlest* or *most gentle*.

Compare the following:

(1) *Tender*, (2) *worthy*, (3) *unkind*.

Some adjectives use different words for their degrees of comparison.

good, well	better	best
bad, ill	worse	worst
late	later, latter	latest, last
little	less	least
much, many	more	most
far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
nigh, near	nigher, nearer	highest, nearest, next

Old has two ways of comparing:

old	older	oldest
	elder	eldest

The form *elder* is never used before *than*. *Elder* and *eldest* frequently take the place of nouns. Compare Lesson 69.

4. Tom is *older* than William.
5. Mark is the *eldest* of the sons.
6. Tom is the *elder* of the two.

Section 5

Find the adjectives in the following sentences, and name the degree of comparison of each:

1. Your work is better than mine.
2. Those pictures are the finest I have seen.
3. I never saw fresher roses.
4. Russia seems to me one of the farthest parts of the earth.
5. To-day my friend is worse.
6. You have our best wishes.
7. My health has never been better.
8. The last point in our journey was Quebec.
9. The bird is sitting on the nearer branch.
10. My cousins live in the next house.
11. The last train has just gone.
12. The first meeting cannot be held after the 20th, at the latest date.

Compose sentences containing these adjectives correctly used:

(1) *Older*, (2) *eldest*, (3) *elder*, (4) *oldest*, (5) *later*, (6) *latter*, (7) *last*, (8) *latest*, (9) *next*, (10) *furthest*.

73. RULES FOR THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE DEGREES OF COMPARISON

Section 1

Some descriptive adjectives cannot, from the nature of their meaning, be compared:

1. A *square* block; a *round* ball.

The term *square* and *round*, depicting exact shapes, are absolute. If a thing is *round*, no other thing can be *more round*. We say, it is true,

2. This apple is *more round* than that;

but we mean *more nearly round*. So we say *more perfect*, meaning *more nearly perfect*. Some absolute terms we never think of using so loosely; as

3. A *triangular* paper; a *cylindrical* pipe.

It is regarded as the best usage to employ the comparative degree in discussing two objects or persons, and the superlative in discussing more than two.

4. The *taller* of the two brothers.
5. The *quickest* of the three cousins.

Double comparatives and superlatives are not now regarded as good English, though Shakespeare in his time could say,

6. The *most unkindest* cut of all.

If we turn back to clauses of comparison expressing inequality (Lesson 49), we shall notice that the main clause always contains a comparative degree. The sentence of this kind is used for saying that one thing is *better than*, or *stronger than*, or *finer than*, another.

Section 2

Supply the proper form of some adjective in each of these sentences:

1. My brother is —— than I.
2. She is the —— of the two sisters.
3. Jessie is the —— of the whole family.
4. Napoleon was the —— general of modern times.
5. Of the two boys I consider Walter the ——.
6. I shall have a —— time to-night than I had last time.

Find the comparatives in Lesson 49, Section 2.

74. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Section 1

Some adverbs can be compared. They have positive, comparative, and superlative degrees.

Most adverbs are compared with *more* and *most*.

1. Jack runs *rapidly*.
2. Tom runs *more rapidly*.
3. Paul runs *most rapidly*.

Some adverbs are compared with *-er* and *-est*. Compare *soon*, *hard*, *long*, *often*, *early*; put them into sentences, and be careful that you use none of them as adjectives.

Some adverbs make their positive, comparative, and superlative with two or more different words.

badly, ill	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
well	better	best
late	later	latest, last
much	more	most
little	less	least

Use one degree of each of these adverbs in a sentence.

A few adverbs may be compared in two ways.

4. We come *oftener* than we did.
5. We come *more often* than we did.

Section 2

Find the adverbs in these sentences, and tell to what class each belongs. Compare those that can be compared.

1. The river runs swiftly in the mountains but slowly on the plains.
2. The boat floats quietly on the current.
3. It will soon reach the city, whose lights show dimly through the fog.
4. We must row hard when we come back up-stream,

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5. If we row into the middle of the river, we shall float rapidly.
6. The recent rains have raised the water very much.
7. The city will sometime be injured by floods.
8. Now we must return.
9. If we do not get back soon, we shall be greatly disappointed.

75. COMPARISON DOWNWARDS

We have seen how adjectives and adverbs may be compared to show *increase* in the intensity of the quality they describe. They may be compared also to show *decrease*. This is done by putting before the word to be compared the adverbs *less* and *least*.

- 1a. This flower is *beautiful*.
- b. That is *less beautiful*.
- c. The other is *least beautiful*.
- 2a. Jack comes *often*.
- b. Tom comes *less often*.
- c. Paul comes *least often*.

Comparison downwards is not so common as the comparison previously discussed.

Compare downward the following adjectives and adverbs; put one degree of each into a sentence:

- (1) *Kind*, (2) *tenderly*, (3) *noisy*, (4) *boldly*, (5) *gentle*, (6) *swiftly*, (7) *noble*, (8) *anxiously*.

76. THE PARSING OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Section 1

1. I found a most beautiful rose.

Beautiful is a descriptive adjective modifying *rose*. It is in the superlative degree, being modified by the adverb *most*.

2. I buy roses now oftener than violets.

Oftener is an adverb of time in the comparative degree, modifying *buy*. *Now* is an adverb of time, not compared.

3. Socrates was wiser than his enemies.

Wiser is a descriptive adjective in the comparative degree. In construction it is a predicate adjective.

Section 2

Parse the adjectives and adverbs in the following sentences:

1. The weary children waited anxiously for the boat.
2. The kindest friend I have is my dear mother.
3. Here I found a lovely bunch of goldenrod.
4. Why do you consider this picture better?
5. I do not like pictures of battles very well.
6. Which do you think most attractive of all?
7. I like best that landscape in the corner.
8. The water in it is greener than that of the lake.
9. After a storm I have often seen the lake very green.

77. AN EXERCISE FOR GENERAL REVIEW

In the following paragraph, parse the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs and analyze the sentences:

My oldest brother, Tom, has just returned from Europe. He was there two years, and visited many famous cities. He says he enjoyed the art galleries most, and he brought home many beautiful photographs of famous pictures and statues. He has explained some of them to me. I like the photographs of Greek statues because the statues are such perfect representations of the human figure. I like them also because they are very simple. Tom showed me a different style

of picture in the work of some modern artists. The most beautiful in this group of Tom's photographs is a picture of the Wise Men, who are adoring the infant Saviour. An angel stands in the middle and holds in his hands the Star of Bethlehem. On the left of the angel are the three wise kings, who offer gifts to the Child. On the right of the angel sits the Blessed Virgin. She holds the Child, and Joseph stands behind her. The Virgin sits under a shed with a thatched roof. The foreground is dotted with flowers, and the background is a grove. Tom says that in the tapestry at Oxford from which this soft brown photograph was taken, the grove is of a wonderful green color. Some days I like best the simple, perfect Greek figures; and some days I like best these highly decorative compositions of our own century.

VIII

THE INFLECTION OF VERBS

78. THE INFLECTION OF THE VERB *LOVE*

I	II
A. 1. I love my country	We love our country
2. Thou lovest thy country	You love your country
3. He loves his country	They love their country
B. 1. I love	We love
2. Thou love	You love
3. He love	They love
C. 2. Love (thou) thy land	Love (you)
D. 1. I loved	We loved
2. Thou lovedst	You loved
3. He loved	They loved
E. 1. I loved	We loved
2. Thou loved	You loved
3. He loved	They loved

NOTE 1.—Lesson 78 is for reference only.

NOTE 2.—A rare, poetical form for I, A, 3 is *loveth*.

79. THE PERSON OF VERBS

Section 1

Let us now examine our verb inflections. Turning to Lesson 78, we will study first the group of forms marked A, column I. In the lines numbered 1, 2, 3, we find differ-

ent forms of the verb with the subjects *I, thou, he*. We have already learned that *I, thou, he* represent the three persons of the personal pronoun. The verb changes its form to "agree with" the person of the subject, and the verb has, therefore, the inflection of person. In the sentence *I love*, the verb is said to be in the first person; in *Thou lovest* it is in the second person; in *He loves* it is in the third person. The second person inflection is made with *-est*, the third person inflection with *-s* (often pronounced *-z* or *-ez*). The third person subject may be *he, she, it*, or any noun in the singular number.

She *loves* her mother.

The soldier *loves* his country.

If you look over the paradigm in Lesson 78, you will see that the third person inflectional ending is used in no other group besides A. The second person ending is in group D, line 2. The full inflection for person, then, is found in A, column I.

In A, column II, there are no person endings. Though *we, you, they* represent the three persons of the pronoun, the verb does not change its form to agree with them. We may say, however, that the verb in *We love* is in the first person because its subject is; in *You love* the verb is in the second person, because *you* is; and in *They love* the verb is in the third person. But we see that there is no true person inflection in A, column II, since the verb does not change its form.

Section 2

Tell the person of the verb in these sentences. If there is any inflectional ending, mention it.

1. I see some daisies.
2. He finds happiness wherever he goes.

3. She expects her father.
4. Thou givest them their meat in due season.
5. I know you tell the truth.
6. It looks like rain.
7. My friend likes the theater.
8. He enjoys the opera too.
9. He believes that the orchestra plays well.
10. Thou madest man—he knows not why.—TENNYSON.

SECTION 3.

Use these nouns as the subjects of sentences. Observe the person of the verbs that follow them.

(1) *Man*, (2) *child*, (3) *hat*, (4) *ball*, (5) *street*, (6) *house*,
(7) *finger*, (8) *trunk*, (9) *window*, (10) *chair*.

80. THE NUMBER OF VERBS

Section I

Turning again to the paradigm printed in Lesson 78, let us study across from column I to column II. You will observe that the subjects in I are singular, and that in II they are plural. Line 1 shows no change in the form of the verb, though the subject has changed from singular to plural. In lines 2 and 3, however, there is true inflection. The endings *-est* and *-s* (*-z*, *-ez*) indicate the singular number as well as the second and third persons.

We have, then, to add NUMBER to our list of verb inflections. Yet we find in the paradigm only one other form where number inflection appears—in D 2, *Thou lovedst*.

Thus far we have learned to distinguish the six forms in A. We see that the group consists of an arrangement of the three persons and the two numbers of the verb,

and that the inflectional endings are present only in the second and third persons singular of the verb. In the other forms we are obliged to decide the person and number of the verb wholly by the person and number of the subject.

One verb in our language—the verb most frequently used, *be*—is so peculiar that we shall have to learn a separate inflection for it. The forms of this verb corresponding to group A are:

I	II
1. I am	We are
2. Thou art	You are
3. He is	They are

Section 2

Write sentences containing these subjects:

(1) *I*, (2) *they*, (3) *men*, (4) *you*, (5) *books*, (6) *Jack*, (7) *he*, (8) *boy*, (9) *we*, (10) *it*.

Change the number of the subject, and observe what change, if any, takes place in the verb.

Section 3

After *I*, *thou*, *he*, *we*, *you*, *they*, put the proper form of each of these verbs:

(1) *See*, (2) *go*, (3) *run*, (4) *try*, (5) *ask*, (6) *throw*, (7) *wish*, (8) *hope*, (9) *find*, (10) *study*, (11) *play*.

81. THE AGREEMENT OF SUBJECT AND VERB

Section 1

1. Will and Jack *go* to school.
2. A lady and her daughter *are walking* on the street.

How many subjects has the verb in sentence 1? In what number is each subject noun? What conjunction joins them? In what number is the verb that makes the assertion about Will and Jack? Study sentence 2 in the same manner. These sentences show us that two singular subjects joined by *and* require a plural verb. When the two subjects mean the same thing, however, the verb is often in the singular.

3. The end and outcome *is* happiness.
4. Jack or Will *goes* for the mail every day.
5. A child or an animal *is crying* in the next house.

What conjunction joins the two singular subjects of *goes*? Of *is crying*? In what number are the verbs following these subjects? The rule in this case is that two singular subjects joined by *or* usually require a singular verb, because the assertion is made about only one of them.

6. The crowd *is* excited.
7. The committee *brings* in this report.
8. The people *are* satisfied with the law.
9. The committee *are* not agreed.

You observe that the subjects of these sentences are collective nouns (Lesson 31). State the number of the verb in each sentence. A collective noun is followed sometimes by a singular verb, sometimes by a plural verb. The difference lies in the exact significance the speaker wishes to give the collective noun. Study sentences 6-9 again carefully, and decide in which ones the collective noun signifies (a) the *single organization*, and in which it signifies (b) the *several persons* that compose the organization. When the noun has meaning (a), ~~what~~

is the number of the verb that follows it? When it has meaning (*b*), what is the number of its verb?

A collective noun used as the subject may take either a singular or a plural verb. When the verb is singular, the group named by the noun is to be regarded as one body or organization. When the verb is plural, the noun suggests the individuals of whom (or which) the body or organization is composed.

When the subject of the verb is a relative pronoun, the verb is governed by the antecedent in person and number.

10. *I*, who *am* here, heard the remarkable statement.
11. The *bird* that *is singing* now has been well trained.
12. Those *books*, which *are* very useful, will bring us much money.

Section 2

Supply verbs for these subjects, and explain your choice of number and person:

1. You and I ——— Latin.
2. The people ——— their representatives.
3. The whole city ——— roused by this cruelty.
4. Birds and bees ——— about our garden.
5. The world ——— a swiftly whirling ball.
6. Marie or Anne ——— to see us every day.
7. The nation ——— flowers on the soldiers' graves.
8. The man or the woman that ——— to us for help
—— us an opportunity to do good.
9. I, who ——— your friend, tell you this truth.
10. He that ——— shall find, and to him that ——— it
shall be opened.
11. You and I ——— there.
12. Jane or Jack ——— all our problems.

82. TENSE

Section 1

Let us turn once more to our verb paradigm in Lesson 78. This time we will compare groups A and D.

When we say, "I love my country," we mean *now, to-day, at this present time*. When we say, "I loved my country," we mean that this was true *last year, yesterday, or at some other past time*. We have indicated this difference in time by changing the form of the verb. This inflection of the verb to indicate time is called TENSE. The form *love*, by which we indicate present time, is the PRESENT TENSE of the verb; *loved*, which indicates past time, is the PAST TENSE of the verb.

Some persons call the past tense the *preterit*, from a Latin word meaning "gone by, past."

Observe that the person-number endings occur in the second and third singular of the present, and only in the second singular of the past.

DEFINITIONS. Tense is the inflection of the verb to indicate time.

The present tense is the form of the verb which indicates that the action takes place in present time.

The past tense is the form of the verb which indicates that the action took place in past time.

Section 2

Change all these present tenses to past tenses. Write the exercise, so that you may compare the forms in the next lesson.

1. I like the spring flowers.
2. I raise my hand.
3. I wish to see you often.
4. I wait for your letter,

5. The man begs at the corner.
6. The birds hop about our window.
7. The squirrels often chatter to us.
8. We enjoy the society of "our dumb friends."
9. They visit us for food.
10. Your manner frightens them a little.
11. They return every morning.
12. They start for my bag of nuts.
13. They stop at the sight of a stranger.
14. They move again.
15. Then they halt again.
16. At last they rush for my nuts.
17. They taste the hickory-nuts first.
18. They scamper back to their nests.
19. They use some of the nuts at once.
20. They store away some for winter.

83. WEAK VERBS

We are now to discover how the past tense of some verbs is made. We will compare the exercise that you wrote in Lesson 82, Section 2, with the sentences printed in the book.

In your first sentence you wrote the past *liked*; you changed the spelling of the present form by adding *-d*. If you pronounce the word, you will see that you add the sound of *-t*.

In your second sentence you wrote *raised*; you added *-d* to the spelling, and by pronouncing the word you will see that in speaking of past time you add the sound of *-d*.

In your fourth sentence you wrote *waited*; you changed the verb to the past tense by adding *-ed* to the spelling of the present. By pronouncing the word you will see that when you speak the past you add *-ed* also in sound.

Make three lists, heading one *-t*, one *-d*, and one *-ed*. According to the *sound* added to the present to make the

past, classify all the verbs you wrote in Lesson 82, Section 2.

Most verbs form their past tense by adding to the present stem *-t*, *-d*, or *-ed*. Such verbs are called **WEAK VERBS**.

DEFINITION. Weak verbs are those that form their past tense by adding *-t*, *-d* or *-ed*, to the present stem.

84. STRONG VERBS

Section 1

In the last lesson we found that many verbs form their past tense by adding a letter or a syllable to the present stem. We have now to study a class of verbs that form their past tense in a different manner.

Write the past tense of the verbs in these sentences:

1. I see a new hat.
2. I find my ball.
3. Jack runs fast.
4. Mary sings well.
5. Frank falls down.
6. They ride home.

You will see that these verbs form their past not by adding a letter or a syllable, but by changing the vowel within the verb. Such verbs as these are called **STRONG VERBS**. These are our oldest and commonest verbs. Most of them were used by our Anglo-Saxon ancestors, and express actions known to people in an early stage of civilization.

They were perfectly regular in the early language, and were divided into classes. But the language has passed through so many changes that the classes have

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become confused, and we can hardly attempt now to make any class separation.

DEFINITION. Strong verbs are those that make their past tense by changing the vowel of the root.

Section 2

Make sentences containing the past tenses of these verbs:

(1) *Eat*, (2) *ring*, (3) *rise*, (4) *stand*, (5) *break*, (6) *ride*, (7) *drink*, (8) *tear*, (9) *bear*, (10) *drive*, (11) *begin*, (12) *bite*, (13) *blow*, (14) *forget*, (15) *shake*, (16) *speak*, (17) *take*, (18) *write*, (19) *swim*, (20) *sink*.

85. WEAK VERBS WITH SPECIAL DIFFICULTIES

Section 1

There are several weak verbs that present some irregularity or special difficulty. For convenience we will group them in four classes.

I. You will find some verbs that change the vowel in their past tense and also add *-d* or *-t*; you will hardly know whether to call them weak or strong, because you will think that they have the characteristics of both classes. But in these verbs the vowel is changed not *for the purpose of making the past tense*, but for other reasons that can be understood only by students of the earlier form of the language. The *-d* or *-t* is put on to make the verb past; therefore such verbs are weak. Let the occurrence of the *-d* or *-t* sound at the end of the past stem be your guide in classifying such verbs.

Examples: *sell*, *tell*, *bring*, *buy*, *catch*, *teach*, *seek*.

II. *Make* has the past *made*, and *have* has the past *had*. *Clothe* also has an old past *clad*, now used but rarely.

These verbs have each lost a letter before they added the *-d*. They are weak verbs.

III. Classes I and II above can be readily distinguished as weak verbs, by the *-d* or *-t* at the end of the past tense. Classes III and IV, now to be mentioned, are much more difficult. We are certain, however, that they are weak verbs, because the weak ending, in an earlier stage of the language, was clearly present. In class III we will put such verbs as *bend*, *send*, *lend*, *spend*, *build*, whose present ends in *-d* and whose past ends in *-t*.

IV. Class IV is made up of those that have the same ending in present and past, and shorten in the past the long root-vowel of the present.

Examples are *bleed*, *feed*, *lead*, *read*, *meet*, *light*.

For convenience of reference, Appendix B contains a list of strong verbs, and a list of difficult weak verbs; these lists should be consulted in connection with the above explanations. Some of these weak verbs have regular forms as well as the peculiar ones.

Section 2

Give the past forms of the following verbs, and tell whether they are strong or weak:

(1) *Sell*, (2) *act*, (3) *spin*, (4) *leave*, (5) *work*, (6) *know*,
(7) *sit*, (8) *set*, (9) *lie*, (10) *lay*, (11) *bring*, (12) *bind*, (13) *catch*,
(14) *buy*, (15) *come*, (16) *run*, (17) *take*, (18) *throw*, (19) *obey*,
(20) *strike*.

86. VERBS NEITHER STRONG NOR WEAK

I. The verb *do* makes its past tense with a form *did*; it originally belonged to a class of verbs which is now practically extinct.

II. The verb *go* makes its past tense with an entire

different word—*went*; *go* cannot therefore be called either strong or weak.

III. Our peculiar verb *be* also makes its past tense with a different word. Its past conjugation is:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I was	We were
Thou wert (wast)	You were
He was	They were

NOTE.—For the complete conjugation of *be* see Appendix B.

IV. Of another group of verbs some were originally strong and some were weak, but they are now spelled alike and pronounced alike in present and past. There is no especial advantage now, therefore, in putting them into either class. The list includes the following verbs: *burst, cast, cost, cut, hit, hurt, knit, let, put, quit, rid, sat, shed, shred, shut, slit, split, spread, sweat, thrust, wet, whet*. A few of these verbs have also a weak past ending in *-ed*: *knitted, quitted, shredded, sweated, wetted, whetted*.

87. MOOD

- 1a. Thou *lovest* thy land.
- b. *Love* thou thy land.—TENNYSON.
- 2a. She *loves* me.
- b. She'll not tell me if she *love* me.—TENNYSON.

We are now to study the manner in which the action of the verb *love* is expressed in these four sentences.

In 1a the loving is asserted as a declaration of fact about the person represented by the subject *thou*. In 1b *love* expresses a command.

In 2a the loving is again asserted as a declaration of fact about the person represented by the subject *she*. In 2b *love* does not make a declaration; here Tennyson

expresses his uncertainty as to whether or not the little girl, "airy, fairy Lilian," loves him.

We see, then, that the thought of the verb may be expressed in three manners: as a declaration of fact (1*a*, 2*a*); as a command (1*b*); as a suggestion of something uncertain (2*b*). These three manners of expressing the idea are known as the three MOODS of the verb, the word *mood* being derived from a Latin word meaning "manner." Thus *mood* here means "manner of thinking, frame of mind, state of feeling," and refers to the attitude of the speaker or writer toward his predication, showing whether he regards it as belonging to the realm of the real or actual, to that of the merely supposed or conceived, or to that of the commanded.

DEFINITIONS. The mood of the verb is its inflection to show the manner of expressing action, being, or condition.

A verb is in the indicative mood when it makes an assertion of fact, or of something assumed to be fact, or asks a question concerning fact.

A verb is in the subjunctive mood when it expresses a doubtful possibility, or something merely supposed, suggested, or desired.

A verb is in the imperative mood when it expresses a command.

NOTE.—The older form of the word was *mode*, which is still heard occasionally. Becoming confused in form and sense with another word *mood*, of native English origin, our grammatical term was changed to *mood*.

88. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

We will now study the forms, or inflections, peculiar to the subjunctive mood.

1. She *loves* me.

2. She'll not tell me if she *love* me.—TENNYSON.

In sentence 1 the verb is in the indicative mood; in sentence 2 it is in the subjunctive mood. The two verbs

are not of the same form, the indicative *loves* having the inflectional ending *-s*. The difference in form cannot indicate person or number (for the subject of both verbs is *she*), or tense (for both verbs are in the present tense). The difference of form must therefore depend on the difference in mood, the only difference in meaning between the two verbs. If you will turn to the paradigm in Lesson 78, you will see that the subjunctive present (B) has no endings to show the second and the third person singular, and that the subjunctive past (E) also has no person-number ending.

Compare now the indicative and subjunctive forms—A with B, D with E. The third person singular present, which we have been studying in *love*, *loves*, is the only place (except the almost unused second person singular) where the two moods show a difference in form. We are seldom able, therefore, to distinguish the subjunctive,—so seldom that we have lost, in great measure, our power to use it at all. Probably most of us would have used the indicative (*loves*) where Tennyson carefully and correctly expressed his uncertainty by the subjunctive (*love*).

The verb *be* is the only one that is much used now in the subjunctive, and its present is not very common. Its forms follow:

PRESENT TENSE

I be	We be
Thou be	You be
He be	They be

PAST TENSE

I were	We were
Thou were	You were
He were	They were

89. THE USES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

The following are the most important uses of the subjunctive at the present time. Make indicative sentences with the same subject and verb, and note the difference in the form of the verb.

I. The subjunctive expresses a wish or a prayer.

1. God *ble*ss you!
2. Would that you *were* here.
3. The Lord *watch* between me and thee.
4. God *forbid*!
5. Long *live* the King!

II. In the first person plural the subjunctive expresses an exhortation.

6. *Be* we bold.

But we more commonly use for this purpose the verb *let* in the imperative mood.

7. *Let* us be bold.

III. In conditional and concessive clauses the subjunctive expresses something supposed, but doubtful or not true.

8. If he *were* my brother, I should help him.

"He" is not my brother; I am merely supposing it.

9. *Be* it ever so humble,
There's no place like home.—PAYNE.

Though one's home be as humble as it can possibly be, this is still true. One's home, however, may actually be not a humble home at all, but a very grand one. In this sentence it is merely *imagined* to be humble; whichever it be, it is the best of places.

10. The dog acts as if he *were* tired.
11. *Were* you sure, you could recite quickly.

One of the peculiarities of this use is that the past subjunctive refers to present time, as in sentences 8, 10, and 11.

90. THE IMPERATIVE MOOD

Section 1

Let us turn once more to our verb paradigm in Lesson 78, and notice the forms of our three moods. A, B, and C are all present tenses: A is the indicative, B the subjunctive, and C the imperative. D and E are past tenses; D is the indicative, E the subjunctive.

You notice at once that the imperative is found only in the present system, and in the second person. Of course we could not command a person to do something in the *past*, and of course we address a command directly *to* a person. The imperative form differs from the indicative by the absence of the *-est* ending in the singular.

It is customary to omit the subject of the imperative mood.

1. Close the door, please.
2. Open the window.
3. Find my pencil, if you will be so kind.

But in literary passages the subject may stand after the verb, as in Tennyson's poem,

4. Love thou thy land;

or in the Biblical command,

5. Go ye out to meet him.

The presence of the subject in an ordinary imperative sentence is apt to imply that the speaker is impatient.

6. You close that door at once.

Or the *you* may be put in for emphasis.

7. John, you analyze that sentence, if William cannot.

The command may become a request by the addition to the sentence of some courteous phrase, as in sentences 1 and 3 above.

The imperative forms of *be* are:

Be [thou]

Be [you]

Section 2

Write sentences containing the imperative mood of the following verbs:

(1) *Run*, (2) *see*, (3) *hurry*, (4) *ride*, (5) *go*, (6) *come*, (7) *cover*, (8) *put*, (9) *enter*, (10) *do*.

Section 3

Explain the mood of each italicized verb in the following sentences:

1. I *saw* your friend yesterday.
2. If I *were* you I should go early.
3. *Come* to-morrow if you can.
4. John *finds* his new work pleasant.
5. If my brother *were* here I should stay.
6. *Be* thou my guide.
7. *Bring* my your book, please.
8. I *found* your books on the piazza.
9. If you *were* pleased, I should be glad.
10. If you *are* pleased I am glad.

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11. Green *be* the turf above thee,
Friend of my better days.—HALLECK.
12. Heaven *grant* you happiness!

91. THE PARSING OF VERBS

Section 1

To parse a verb one must tell its person, number, tense, mood, and class (weak or strong). It is well to give the present and past tenses to show why you classify it as you do.

1. I found my book torn.

Found is a verb; first person, singular number, past tense, indicative mood. It is strong (*find, found*).

2. Tom and Rob tell you the truth.

Tell is a verb in the third person plural. It is present indicative; weak (*tell, told*).

3. If I were you, I would not do that.

Were is a verb in the first person singular. It is past subjunctive; it expresses a thing supposed that is not true.

Section 2

Parse all the verbs in the Lord's Prayer.

92. AN EXERCISE FOR GENERAL REVIEW

In the following paragraph analyze as many sentences as possible. Parse nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs.

I camped one summer with some friends in the Rocky Mountains. We left the train at a town that had been built

when people supposed that there were valuable mines in the neighborhood. The mines had proved worthless, and the poor men that had invested their money in the buildings of the town had lost it all. There were large vacant brick buildings, three or four stories high. A beautiful hotel was going to ruin, and the streets were almost deserted. It was the most desolate town I ever saw. We drove in wagons about twenty-five miles into the mountains. A large company of miners rode on little "Jacks" in front of us, for we were going to open a coal mine. The country was very new, and few bridges had been built across the mountain torrents; so we had often to ford a rushing stream. One time we passed a mail-stage on the narrow road, and our wheels slid over the edge of the precipice. We shuddered as we looked down three hundred feet into the tumbling water; but there was no danger, for we had a careful driver. In spite of our fears we enjoyed the afternoon. The mountains were of grey or red stone, and some of them were covered with dark, green forests. In one place we plunged suddenly into a grove of "quivering aspen" trees, whose shivering leaves made dancing shadows over us. Just at dark our cavalcade reached the little group of log cabins where we were to stay. The chief engineers had rooms in the cabins, and tents were pitched for the miners. Near our encampment flowed a clear stream, from which we obtained water and delicious trout. The men often went a mile or two back into the mountains for deer. Our host had a fine garden; for vegetables grow in that rich, irrigated soil as they grow in no other place. It was a beautiful spot in which one might rest after a hard year's work.

IX

VERBALS

93. VERBALS

Section 1

You have already learned that a verb is the asserting word of the sentence; that it forms the base of the predicate, which asserts something of the subject.

1. The boy likes to run.
2. The boy enjoys running races.
3. The boy, running rapidly, falls down.

The verbs in these sentences are *likes*, *enjoys*, *falls*. You will observe that the sentences contain also other words expressing action—*run*, *running*, *running*. The fact that these words express action, as verbs so often do, makes us ask ourselves whether they too are not verbs. Suppose we use *run* as the predicate verb of the sentence.

4. The boy *runs* to find his ball.
5. The boys *run* to find their ball.

Here we see that the verb changes form to agree with the subject in number. We will now change the subjects in sentences 1, 2, and 3 and see if *run*, *running* change to agree with them in person and number.

6. The boys like to *run*.
7. He likes to *run*.
8. The boys enjoy *running* races.
9. John enjoys *running* races.

10. The boys, *running* rapidly, fall down.

11. *Running* rapidly, John falls down.

We see that it is only the predicate verbs that change: *run* and *running* do not.

There are, then, certain forms of words expressing action or being that do not make an assertion of a subject, and do not, therefore, need to agree with it in person and number. To distinguish them from predicate verbs we may call them VERBALS.

DEFINITION. Verbals are words that express action, or being, or condition, but do not make an assertion, and therefore have no grammatical subject and no person-number inflection.

Section 2

Find the verbs and the verbals in the following sentences:

1. To err is human; to forgive, divine.—POPE.
2. Catching fish was the favorite recreation of Izaak Walton.
3. Calling loudly for help, the boy attracted the attention of the crowd.
4. Paul asked me to find his hat.
5. The child tried hard to be good.
6. After seeing the parade, we turned homeward.
7. To study in summer is difficult.
8. Reading fairy stories is a pleasant occupation.
9. The boy, reading rapidly, soon finished the book.
10. I was surprised at seeing you there.
11. I did not expect to see you there.
12. Seeing you there, I gave an exclamation of surprise.
13. The two passengers, injured in the wreck, were taken to the hospital.
14. Happy at seeing his friend, Robert ran forward to receive him.

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15. The child ran to meet his father.
16. Early taken into the country, he learned as a child to love flowers and birds.
17. To be diligent is necessary if one would succeed.
18. The child, sent to the shop, was tempted to loiter.
19. Arnold, hated by all men, died miserably.
20. To see is to believe.
21. Seeing is believing.
22. To feel sure is not always to be correct.
23. To be or not to be—that is the question.—SHAKESPEARE.
24. Discovered by the enemy, the soldier gave up his attempt to escape.
25. Fearing the king, Morton was obliged to leave the country.

Section 3

Verbals are divided into three classes, partly by their form, and partly by the work they do in the sentence. These three classes (gerunds, participles, infinitives) we must now learn to distinguish in form and use (Lessons 94, 95, and 99). In preparation for this study, write, in four columns, the verbals that you have found in the twenty-five sentences of the last section, dividing them according to their forms. Let one column contain those that are in form like *to run*; let another contain those that end in *-ing*, as *running*; another those that end in *-d*, *-t*, or *-ed*, as *sent*, *hated*; another those that end in *-n* or *-en*, as *taken*. After each verbal place the number of the sentence in which you found it.

94. GERUNDS

Section 1

Let us now examine as carefully as we can each verbal in your list (Lesson 93, Section 3) of those ending in *-ing*.

We find that *catching* in sentence 2 is used as the subject of the sentence; this is a position most commonly occupied by a noun; we may say, then, that *catching* is a verbal used as a noun. In sentence 6 *seeing* follows a preposition, another construction in which we usually find a noun; *seeing* is, then, a verbal used as a noun. Go through your list, and make a separate column for the verbals used as nouns; that is, for those used as subject, as predicate noun, as object of a verb, or after a preposition. These verbals are GERUNDS.

DEFINITION. A gerund is a verbal in *-ing* used as a noun.

Section 2

Fill the blank spaces in these sentences with gerunds. Tell how each is used.

1. ——— on the ice is a popular winter sport.
2. Were you not surprised at ——— me here?
3. We decided on ——— the museum.
4. Jane had stopped ——— French.
5. We devoted our summer to ——— golf.
6. ——— in the surf was delightful.
7. Your ——— the book kept you busy.
8. We greatly disliked ——— the wolf.
9. He has depended on my ——— here.
10. I fear the rain will prevent your ——— to the fair.

Section 3

Find the gerunds in these sentences. Tell how each is used. Are any of them modified by adverbs? Are any of them followed by complements? You will notice that some of them are preceded by a genitive noun or pronoun, naming the person or thing that performs the action expressed by the gerund.

1. Your writing that letter so carefully pleased your aunt.

2. Going into the sea so soon after dinner will seriously injure your health.
3. John's coming home was quite unexpected.
4. Anne was not alarmed at receiving the telegram.
5. Do you feel sorry for giving up your trip?
6. The ring was her reward for being faithful in practicing her music.
7. Her going to college was a surprise to her friends.
8. Your finding poetry dull is a sign of lack of culture.
9. The man's working so hard was the cause of his ill health.
10. Playing basket-ball is a popular recreation in our school.

95. PARTICIPLES

Section 1

Turn once more to the list of verbals ending in *-ing* that you made in Lesson 93, Section 3. From that list you took out certain verbals used as nouns, called gerunds. Let us see how the others are used.

In the third sentence, *calling* is not a noun; it rather modifies the noun *boy*, and therefore is in use like an adjective. In the ninth sentence, *reading* is an adjective modifying *boy*. Go through the entire list, choosing the verbals in *-ing* used as adjectives. Then find out how many in your lists ending in *-d*, *-t*, *-ed*, and *-en* are used as adjectives. These verbals in the construction of adjectives are called PARTICIPLES, because they *participate*, or "take part," in the natures of verbs and of adjectives.

DEFINITION. A participle is a verbal used as an adjective.

Participles that stand at the beginning of the sentence are expected to modify the subject. Go through the sentences in Lesson 93, Section 2, containing participles, and verify this statement.

Section 2

Fill the blanks in these sentences with participles, and tell what they modify:

1. ——— his money, the man gave up the trip.
2. ——— the crowd, the speaker began.
3. The children, ——— by the bear, shrieked loudly.
4. The Indians, ——— about the camp-fire, smoked the pipe of peace.
5. ——— by the enemy, the soldiers were obliged to surrender.
6. A pension was given to the soldier ——— in the war.
7. The clergyman ———, the service began.
8. The fire, ——— by the wind, did terrible damage.
9. ——— a gale, the wind swept through the empty streets.
10. ——— out on the grass, I lay and looked up at the fleecy clouds.

Section 3

Find the participles in these sentences, and tell on what noun or pronoun each depends. Have any of them complements? Are any modified by adverbs?

1. Shouting loudly for help, the men were rescued from the boat.
2. Closing the door carefully, father and mother began to decorate the Christmas tree.
3. Tying his skiff to a tree, the hunter started into the forest.
4. Six children sat by the fire, awaiting the return of their parents.
5. Looking toward the window, one of the children saw a redskin peering in.
6. The little fox, restored to its mother, soon became very lively.

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7. Finding the journey impossible, we turned back.
8. We gave up the ascent of Mount Washington, the weather being cloudy.
9. Becoming tired of the farm, the boy sought a position in the city.
10. Winter beginning, Washington led his army to Valley Forge.
11. The wind changing, we sailed home.
12. Lamps lighted by electricity are used in our school.

96. A REVIEW OF GERUNDS AND PARTICIPLES

Classify the verbals in these sentences as gerunds or participles, and tell the construction of each. If any verbals have complements or modifiers, mention them.

1. The door being open, we entered the cathedral.
2. Running past the Vicksburg batteries was a daring undertaking.
3. I was alarmed at seeing the fire near.
4. Getting up early, we took the morning train.
5. The fireman received a medal for saving five persons.
6. Injured by a stone, the bird was unable to fly.
7. The teacher arriving, the recitation began.
8. I was pleased at your liking my embroidery.
9. Their parents being ill, the children remained at home.
10. Your being ill was a disappointment to us all.

97. PARTICIPIAL PHRASES

A group of words beginning with a participle is often equivalent, or nearly equivalent, in meaning to a clause, and may be substituted for a clause for the sake of variety in sentence structure, or for improvement in sound.

- a. *Seeing* the multitude, he went up to a high place to speak to them.
- b. *When he saw* the multitude, he went up to a high place.

There is sometimes a shade of difference in meaning that will make the writer prefer one form to the other. The clause may seem to give more emphasis to the idea than the participial phrase, because the clause is a larger unit in the sentence. In the above example, *a* lays as little stress as possible on the fact that the seeing of the multitude happened at the same time that he went up to a high place; *b*, however, lays some little stress on this fact, so that we are more likely to infer from it that the sight of the multitude was what induced him to go up to the high place.

Turn to Lesson 95, Section 3, and see how many participial groups you can change into clauses without materially changing the meaning of the sentence.

98. THE ABSOLUTE GROUP

Section 1

The participle is frequently found in such constructions as these:

1. *The teacher being sick*, school was dismissed.
2. We hastened home, *our horses galloping*.

Being depends on *teacher*, and *galloping* on *horses*; these participles, like all others, are adjectives. But the nouns on which they depend are not formally connected with the sentence proper. The grammatical sentences are complete with *school was dismissed* and *we hastened home*. The nouns on which these participles depend are therefore ABSOLUTE ("cut off"). Of course there is thought-relation between this noun-participle group and the sentence proper; otherwise the absolute phrase ought not to be in the sentence. School was dismissed *because* the teacher was sick; we hurried home *in this rapid man-*

ner—our horses were galloping. What is wanting in the absolute construction is a word to show this thought-relation, like *because*.

An absolute noun may be followed by an adjective or a phrase instead of a participle.

3. *Our baskets full of ferns*, we returned from the woods.
4. The soldiers ran for the fort, *the Indians after them*.

We naturally ask what case of the pronoun should be used in this construction.

5. *She being down*, I have the placing of the English crown.—SHAKESPEARE.

6. *They presently going*, we continued our work.

The nominative form, we see, is used. The noun or pronoun is therefore said to be in the NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE construction.

Such a group of words is not to be confused with this construction:

7. *Running* blindly, the horse plunged into the river.

Here *running* depends on *horse*, which is not absolute because it is the subject of the sentence.

Section 2

Find the absolute groups in these sentences, and explain the thought-relation of each group to the sentence proper:

1. My horse being tired out, I was obliged to halt for the night.
2. The visitors going, we continued our work.
3. The bridge being broken down, the train was wrecked.
4. We hastened home, the hour being late.

5. The birds come to our lawn in flocks, food being placed for them.
6. Spring coming on, the trees grew green.
7. Our team winning the game, we came home in high spirits.
8. Our friends being judges, we deserved the prize.
9. Our enemies being judges, we received the prize.
10. The pleasant day passing, we started home.
11. The men completing their work, the doors were again opened.
12. You being of the same opinion, the vote will be unanimous.

Section 3

Nominative absolutes followed by participles are often equivalent in meaning to clauses. They are sometimes preferred to clauses when a briefer expression is desired; the writer, however, should be sure that the thought of the sentence is perfectly clear without the conjunction.

- a. *Mary going*, I began a gift that I had planned for her.
- b. *When Mary had gone*, I began a gift that I had planned for her.

Write the thoughts expressed in the sentences of Section 2 above, using clauses instead of the absolute groups. Is one expression clearer than the other in any sentence?

99. INFINITIVES

Section 1

In Lesson 93, Section 3, you divided a number of verbals into lists according to their form. In Lessons 94 and 95 you learned to call some of them gerunds and

some of them participles. One of these lists we have yet to study, the one headed by *to err*.

In the first place, you will notice that this verbal differs from the others in form. Gerunds and participles have some ending—*-ing*, *-ed*, *-en*; but this verbal is the bare stem of the verb. It is, moreover, commonly preceded by the word *to*. Read through your list once more and notice this form.

This verbal is very frequently used, and to it has been given a name expressing the characteristic of all three classes of verbals—INFINITIVES. The name is derived from a Latin word meaning “unlimited”; the infinitive is not “limited” by the necessity of agreeing with a subject in person and number. It does not “limit” the action it expresses by asserting this action of some particular thing; it names the action in a more general way.

In use, the infinitive is like a noun. It is the name by which we call the verb, as in these sentences:

1. Write the verb *go* (or *to go*) on the board.
2. Define the word *arrest* (or *to arrest*).

It is used, too, where the noun is often used in the sentence. Compare these sentences:

- 3a. *Obedience* is a soldier's duty.
- b. *To obey* is a soldier's duty.
- 4a. *Error* is human; *forgiveness* is divine.
- b. *To err* is human; *to forgive*, divine.
- 5a. The *discovery* of the North Pole was his purpose.
- b. *To discover* the North Pole was his purpose.

We may now sum up what we have learned about the infinitive.

The infinitive is a verbal; in form it is the simple stem

of the verb, often preceded by *to*; it is in its use a noun.

DEFINITION. An infinitive is a verbal consisting of the simplest form of the verb, frequently preceded by *to*, and used as a noun.

NOTE.—The *to* is not really a part of the infinitive. In *I came to see you*, the *to* is a preposition, and the infinitive *see* is its object; I came *for* a certain purpose. The *to* was used so often in such places, where it had real prepositional value, that we have come to use it where no preposition is necessary. In *To see is to believe*, the *to* has crept in before the infinitive *see*, which does not need a preposition, because it is the subject of the sentence. For convenience we may in such places think of the *to* as a sort of prefix to the infinitive, and speak of a group of words like *to see* as if it were one word.

Fill the following blanks with infinitive phrases and infinitives:

6. His friends wished —— him.
7. She tried —— her faults.
8. —— a person that has once deceived you is difficult.
9. Ellen learned —— cake very well.
10. We gathered —— a lecture on Shakespeare.

Section 2

Find the infinitives in these sentences. Are any of them modified by adverbs? Have any of them complements?

1. We enjoyed going to see the museum.
2. Jack tries to be kind to his sisters, but sometimes he does tease them.
3. Do you wish to go with me?
4. I must ask you to walk more slowly.
5. I hope to find time to read the book you lent me.
6. Anne went back to shut the door.
7. I found it difficult to-day to stand on the icy walks.
8. I bought a cast of Venus to put on my desk, and a picture of *The Winged Victory* to hang above it.

9. Being very tired, I went to lie down.
10. Jack wished to go to the pond to skate, and he spoke to his mother about it.

Section 3

Make a list of twelve infinitives, names of actions that you see performed in the schoolroom. Beside each write a participle and the gerund of the same verb.

100. THE USES OF THE INFINITIVE

Section 1

I. The infinitive may be used as the subject of the sentence, or as the object complement or subjective complement of the verb, or as an appositive to a noun. Tell how the infinitives are used in these sentences:

1. To see is to believe.
2. I expect to go to-morrow.
3. I wish to find my coat.
4. To know everything about a subject is impossible.
5. This ambition, to become a soldier, now took possession of William.
6. To play the game well is difficult.
7. To run from the enemy is disgraceful; to give up because something is hard is also disgraceful.
8. The wish to make others happy makes us useful.

Not infrequently *it* stands at the beginning of the sentence, and the true subject, the infinitive, stands after the verb. Omit *it* and rearrange the following sentences so that the infinitive shall stand in the ordinary subject position:

9. It is my desire to travel in England.
10. It is a bad habit to give up work that we have begun.
11. It seems wise to carry our umbrellas.

12. It tires us to climb the hill.

13. It is impossible to go out in this rain.

In these thirteen sentences the *to* does no work as a preposition—it does not join the infinitive to anything—and is therefore a mere particle used as a “sign” of the infinitive.

II. The infinitive phrase sometimes depends on a noun or an adjective; that is, it is used with a noun or an adjective to complete the part of the thought begun by that noun or adjective. In these cases, the infinitive is joined by the preposition *to* to the word on which it depends.

14a. Your house is a regular *trap to catch* sunbeams.

Compare:

14b. Your house is a regular *trap for catching* sunbeams.

15a. He was *eager to try* city life.

Compare:

15b. He was *eager for a trial* of city life.

16a. The best *way to become* happy ourselves is to make others happy.

Compare:

16b. The best *way of becoming* happy ourselves is to make others happy.

17a. Leaves have their *time to fall*.

Compare:

17b. Leaves have their *time for falling*.

18. *Ambitious to excel* in music, Jessie practiced faithfully.

III. An infinitive phrase may bring into the sentence the notion of *purpose*. It is then joined to the verb by the preposition *to*.

19a. I *came to see* you yesterday.

Compare:

19b. I *came for the purpose* of seeing you.

20. We *ran to meet* our cousins.

21. Columbus *sailed to find* the shores of India.

IV. Sometimes an infinitive with the noun or pronoun that stands before it is used as the group-object of a verb as if it were a noun clause.

22a. I wished *May to go*.

b. I wished *that May would go*.

23a. I found *her to be blind*.

b. I found *that she was blind*.

24a. We knew *them to be poor*.

b. We knew *that they were poor*.

25a. They believed *the boat to be lost*.

b. They believed *that the boat was lost*.

26a. They declared *the danger to be past*.

b. They declared *that the danger was past*.

It is important here to notice the correct form of the pronoun to be used in the noun clause and in the infinitive group. We say,

27a. I know that it was *she*,

using the nominative case after the verb *was* because the subjective complement *she* relates to the nominative *it*, subject of *was*. But we say,

27b. I knew it to be *her*,

using the objective case after *be* because the complement *her* relates to *it*, which is objective case after *knew*.

Compare:

28a. I knew *him* to be a gentleman,

with

28b. I knew *it* to be *him*,

and you will understand why *him*, in 28*b*, must be in the objective case.

Section 2

Change these noun clauses to group-objects containing infinitives:

1. They believed that the news was true.
2. They knew that it was he.
3. Jack found that the book was torn.
4. I wished that my friend would come.
5. We expected that they would go with us.

Change these group-objects to noun clauses:

6. We wished him to succeed.
7. Mabel found the stranger to be her cousin.
8. Paul desired us to see his trained dog.
9. The boys believed their sister to be at home.
10. They expected her to go to the ball game with them.

Put correct forms into the following blanks:

11. You may easily see that it is——[*she* or *her*].
12. They perceived it to be——[*I* or *me*].
13. Do you think that is——[*they* or *them*]?
14. ——[*Who* or *whom*]do you take that to be?
15. ——[*Who* or *whom*]do you think that is?
16. They found it to be——[*she* or *her*].
17. They wished that it might be——[*I* or *me*].
18. Do you believe it to be——[*he* or *him*]?
19. I don't know——[*who* or *whom*] you think I am.
20. I don't know——[*who* or *whom*] you take me to be.

Section 3

After some verbs (*let*, *make*, *feel*, *hear*, *see*, and some others) an infinitive in such object groups as we have

been studying does not have the *to* that usually precedes it. Neither can we change these group-objects into clauses; that is, it is our custom to express such notions after those verbs with infinitive constructions only.

1. Let *me go* with you.
2. They made *us wait* a long time.
3. I felt my *heart beat* fast.
4. We heard the *horse run* by.
5. Jack saw the *boat capsiz*e.
6. I watched the *storm approach*.
7. My mother saw *me do this*.

After some verbs a participle is used in a similar group.

8. I found *her study*ing.
9. I saw the *horse run*ning by.
10. We heard the *horse gallop*ing behind us.
11. I felt my *burdens fall*ing off.
12. We watched the *enemy approach*ing.

Section 4

Tell the construction of the following infinitive phrases and infinitives:

1. To learn the truth is one purpose of our study.
2. I know how to study my history lesson.
3. I found her to be very pleasant.
4. I planned to go to-morrow.
5. They came to find their friends.
6. We saw the horses run down the street.
7. It is not all of life to live.
8. My ambition, to be a good cook, seems likely to be fulfilled.
9. He is very quick to see mistakes.
10. He had a farm to sell.
11. I have come to help you.

12. We are not ready to go.
13. My desire is to become a good pianist.
14. It is necessary to work faithfully if we wish to succeed.
15. To take good photographs requires considerable skill.

101. EXPRESSIONS EQUIVALENT TO INFINITIVES

Section 1

The infinitive, being a sort of noun, can sometimes be interchanged with a gerund or an ordinary noun without making any material change in the meaning of the sentence.

- 1a. *To return* would be tedious.
- b. Returning* would be tedious.
- 2a. *Regrets* were vain.
- b. To regret* was vain.

Change the following italicized expressions into as many equivalents as you can find for them:

3. He longed *for a sight of* the country.
4. They decided *on a trial of* their strength.
5. Your house is a trap *for catching* sunbeams.
6. *The climbing of* the hill tired us.
7. My desire *for travel* was great.
8. I intend *going* to-morrow.
9. *To depart* in this rain is impossible.
10. He was eager *to try* city life.
11. *Seeing* is *believing*.
12. *To know* our faults will help us to correct them.
13. *To object* will cause us trouble.
14. *Stealing* is a crime.
15. *Reading* well is a great accomplishment.
16. *To play* ball was his great delight.
17. *To know* that you were safe at home made me glad.
18. I hope to find time *to read* that book.

Section 2

An infinitive phrase is sometimes equivalent in meaning to an adjective or adverbial prepositional phrase or to a clause, or to an adjective or an adverb.

- 1a. It was a song *to make us laugh*.
- b. It was an *amusing* song.
- 2a. I came *to see* you yesterday.
- b. I came yesterday *that I might see* you.
- 3a. There is a time *to laugh*.
- b. There is a time *for laughter*.

Change the following italicized constructions without changing the meaning:

- 4. I went *to find* my brother.
- 5. Leaves have their time *to fall*.
- 6. I take my pen *to write* to you.
- 7. I went away *that I might rest*.
- 8. We ran *to meet* our friends.
- 9. I have come *to help* you.
- 10. Our friends went to Europe *to study* art.
- 11. I have no time *to spare*.
- 12. She went back *that she might shut* the door.
- 13. It was a story *to break* one's heart.
- 14. It was a fine day *for fishing*.

102. A PARTIAL REVIEW EXERCISE

Classify the verbals in these sentences, and tell how each is used. Are they modified? Have they complements?

- 1. Falling from favor, the young adventurer left court.
- 2. Watching the bathers was our chief entertainment.
- 3. To acknowledge our faults is to take the first step toward conquering them.
- 4. We reached the village by walking across the meadows.
- 5. Collecting his books, Raymond started homeward.

6. Greeting the President, we passed on.
7. He attributed his success to being prompt.
8. I wish to find the book I left here.
9. The dogs seemed glad to see us.
10. We were pleased with you for doing your duty.
11. The day being pleasant, we drove a long distance.
12. Our friends went to Europe to study art.

103. PRESENT VERBALS

Section I

We have already learned that verbals have no person-number forms. When we consider that they do not assert, and that the moods of a verb are its *ways of asserting or predicating*, we can readily understand that a verbal can have no mood inflection. Verbals are subject to comparatively few changes in form; the simplest of these forms we are about to study.

I. Of the PRESENT INFINITIVE we have already had many examples. It is the present stem of the verb, without ending, usually preceded by *to*; *to see*, *to walk*, *to know*.

II. The PRESENT GERUND ends in *-ing*.

1. *Visiting* the falls was a popular entertainment.
2. *Loving* one's neighbor is a Christian virtue.
3. *Doing* his duty was not easy for James.

III. The PRESENT PARTICIPLE also ends in *-ing*.

4. Alice, *writing* too rapidly, made mistakes.
5. Paul, *coasting* down the long hill, was injured.

The present participle commonly expresses an action that occurs at the same time as the action expressed by the predicate verb.

6. John ran down street, *shouting* and *waving* his arms.

But the present participle may express an action that took place before that asserted by the predicate verb.

7. *Hearing* of your misfortune, I have come to offer my sympathy.

Section 2

Find the present verbals in Lesson 93, Section 2, and in Lesson 102.

104. THE PAST PARTICIPLE OF WEAK VERBS

The PAST PARTICIPLE of weak verbs, like the past tense, ends in *-t*, *-d*, or *-ed*. Indeed, the past participle and the past tense are usually identical in form.

1. The child *loved* her mother. (Past tense.)
2. The child, tenderly *loved* by her mother, was happy in her home. (Past participle.)

You will distinguish the past participle from the past tense without difficulty if you remember that the past tense is a predicate verb with a subject, while the participle is used like an adjective.

Fill the blank in each of the following sentences with the past participle of the verb given in brackets at the end of the sentence. Tell on what noun or pronoun the participle depends.

1. The house, ——— by good carpenters, stood many years. [Build.]
2. Tom, ——— by his mother, did the errand quickly. [Send.]
3. ——— by the hunter, the bird flew away from its nest. [Watch.]
4. The teacher granted the request ——— by the pupils. [Make.]
5. The horses, ——— by the cars, ran away. [Frighten.]

6. I like those flowers —— by Mary. [Arrange.]
7. How do you like my hats —— at White's? [Buy.]
8. The partridge was killed by a shot —— by Henry. [Aim.]
9. The American colonies, —— by common wrongs, called a congress. [Unite.]
10. Strongly —— by the sufferings of the poor family, Elizabeth did much to help them. [Affect.]

105. THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS

Section 1

It is customary to cite the present stem, the past stem, and the past participle of the verb as its **PRINCIPAL PARTS**. It is necessary to know these before we can make the conjugation of the verb; for until we know the present and past stems we cannot even tell whether the verb is strong or weak. Knowing these parts, we can readily make the entire conjugation, by adding person-number endings where they are needed.

The principal parts of *ask* are *ask*, *asked*, and *asked*. The present stem being *ask*, if we wish to make the third person singular we have but to add the proper ending, -s; *asks* is the required form. The past stem being *asked*, we may make the second person singular by putting on its ending, -(e)*st*; *thou askedst*. The use of the past participle in conjugation we have to learn later when we study verb-phrases (Chapter X).

Section 2

Prepare three columns headed *Present*, *Past*, *Past Participle*. In these columns write the principal parts of the following verbs; then decide whether the verbs are weak or strong:

- (1) *Walk*, (2) *obey*, (3) *answer*, (4) *spend*, (5) *kill*, (6) *buy*,

(7) *catch*, (8) *shut*, (9) *talk*, (10) *jump*, (11) *beg*, (12) *hate*,
(13) *dress*, (14) *remain*, (15) *feel*.

106. THE PAST PARTICIPLE OF STRONG VERBS

Section 1

In the early history of our language, the strong verb formed its past participle, as it formed its past tense, by changing the vowel of the root. For the participle it also used the ending *-en*. This ending was later dropped from many past participles, and in not a few strong verbs there has been such confusion of forms that the past participle now has the same vowel as the past tense and looks and sounds exactly like it.

bind	bound	bound
find	found	found
wind	wound	wound

Other strong verbs in their principal parts show three different vowels.

ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
write	wrote	written
drink	drank	drunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk

Not infrequently careless speakers and writers use the past participle instead of the past tense. You may hear:

1. I *drunk* some water at that spring.

The correct form is:

2. I *drank* some water at that spring;

because we wish to use not the past participle but the predicate verb.

Compose sentences containing as predicate verbs the past tenses of the following verbs:

- (1) *Ring*, (2) *begin*, (3) *swim*, (4) *sing*, (5) *eat*, (6) *sink*, (7) *spring*, (8) *run*.

If you are in doubt about the correct form, consult the list of strong verbs in Appendix B.

Section 2

Put in three columns the principal parts of these strong verbs:

- (1) *Break*, (2) *choose*, (3) *come*, (4) *freeze*, (5) *know*, (6) *shake*, (7) *speak*, (8) *steal*, (9) *strike*, (10) *take*, (11) *throw*, (12) *write*, (13) *tear*, (14) *weave*.

107. A PARTIAL REVIEW OF VERBALS

Make sentences containing these verbals, and tell whether they are participles, gerunds, or infinitives; also tell whether the verb is strong or weak. Classify the participles as present or past.

- (1) *To shout*, (2) *roaring*, (3) *taken*, (4) *hindered*, (5) *binding*, (6) *to love*, (7) *asked*, (8) *reminded*, (9) *puzzling*, (10) *to desert*, (11) *lost*, (12) *burned*, (13) *describing*, (14) *to recognize*, (15) *explaining*, (16) *to ask*, (17) *to go*, (18) *finding*, (19) *going*, (20) *sold*, (21) *seen*, (22) *told*, (23) *hung*, (24) *to set*, (25) *running*.

108. THE PARSING OF VERBALS

Section 1

To parse a verbal, tell its name, its use, its form, and its modifiers and complement.

1. I wish to see my brother now.

To see is an infinitive, in the present form. It is the object of the verb *wish*. It is modified by the adverb *now*, and has the object *brother*, on which depends the genitive pronoun *my*.

2. Watching the clouds was a fascinating diversion.

Watching is a present gerund, used as the subject of the verb *was*. *Watching* has the object *clouds*, which is modified by the article *the*.

3. A lighthouse, sighted in the distance, guided our ship safely to harbor.

Sighted is the past participle of a weak verb; it depends on the noun *lighthouse*; it is modified by the phrase *in the distance*.

4. The child crying, we hastened to his assistance.

Crying is a present participle, depending on the noun *child*, which is in an absolute construction. The absolute group tells why, or perhaps when, we hastened to his assistance.

Section 2

Parse the verbals in Lesson 93, Section 2.

109. A GENERAL REVIEW EXERCISE

Analyze the sentences and parse the words in the following paragraph:

Dear Robert,—

I want to tell you of a day that Brother Tom and I spent at the home of Sir Walter Scott. Scott's estate is Abbotsford, among the beautiful hills of southern Scotland. The mansion is a very large one, and is surrounded by noble gardens and lawns, and by the pastures, groves, and fields of the farm,

On the day when we were there, we could see from the windows the great-great-grandchildren of Sir Walter Scott playing by the river and riding their ponies in the pasture below the terrace. The inside of the house interested me even more than the outside. In the rooms shown to visitors are large collections of armor and weapons and of books. Sir Walter's study is lined with books to the ceiling, and a little iron gallery runs about it so that one may reach the top shelves. In the library hangs Raeburn's picture of Scott and his two dogs. Scott was very fond of dogs, and his famous monument in Edinburgh also represents him with his pets at his side. The drawing-room and the library are full of gifts that Scott received from famous persons. From Abbotsford we drove to the ruins of Dryburgh Abbey to see Scott's grave, and then to Melrose Abbey, of which he wrote so much.

Of our journey through the Trossachs I will tell you in my next letter.

Your affectionate cousin,

JACK.

The Balmoral, Edinburgh,
September 15.

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE

1. My errand was to buy a pound of sugar.
2. To suffer and to do, that was thy portion in life.
3. Seeing my father coming up the road, I ran joyfully out to meet him.
4. Every man wishes to live long, but no man wishes to grow old.
5. The heights by great men reached and kept
Were not attained by sudden flight;
But they, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upward in the night.—LONGFELLOW.
6. Finishing a thing, doing it thoroughly before we begin anything else, is very important to our own happiness and the good of others.—JAMES FREEMAN CLARKE.
7. Sweet funeral bells from some incalculable distance,

wailing over the dead that die before the dawn, awakened me as I slept in a boat moored to some familiar shore.—DE QUINCEY.

8. It is excellent to have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous to use it like a giant.—SHAKESPEARE.

9. To look at thee unlocks a warmer clime.—LOWELL.

10. The way to be original is to be healthy.—LOWELL.

11. I'll make you watch him all day.

12. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.

13. The Frenchmen, carousing all day, thought themselves secure for the night.

14. Soon o'er the yellow fields, in silent and mournful procession,

Came from the neighboring hamlets and farms the
Acadian women,

Driving in ponderous wains their household goods to
the seashore.—LONGFELLOW.

15. Edward dying without heirs, the crown was conferred upon Harold.

16. Such men deserve to be fortunate and happy.

17. England expects every man to do his duty.—NELSON.

18. Conscience, her first law broken, wounded lies.

19. The French, dispersed in a gale, put back to Toulon.

20. We believed the story to be false.

21. These injuries comforted externally, and Mr. Pecksniff comforted internally, they sat down.—DICKENS.

22. He heard the black steed panting and blowing behind him.—IRVING.

23. To refuse to do a bad thing is to do a good one.—WESTLAKE.

24. To make the common marvellous is the test of genius—LOWELL.

25. An important part of culture is to acquire the habit of finishing every work.—CLARKE.

26. The white-coated sentinels never cease to pace the bastions night and day.—HOWELLS.

27. He grieved to give up his dog and gun; he dreaded to

meet his wife; but it would not do to starve among the mountains.—IRVING.

28. I think they are trying to outwit Nature, who is sure to be cunninger than they.

29. It is easy in the world to live after the world's opinion; it is easy in solitude to live after one's own; but the great man is he who in the midst of the crowd keeps with perfect sweetness the independence of solitude.—EMERSON.

30. To seek philosophy in Scripture is to seek the dead among the living; to seek religion in Nature is to seek the living among the dead.

31. He altered much upon hearing it.

32. To resist evil by evil is evil.—MOHAMMED.

33. To preach is far easier than to practice.

34. The brazen throat of war had ceased to roar.

35. Sharper than a serpent's tooth it is

To have a thankless child.—SHAKESPEARE.

36. The objection to conforming to uses that have become dead to you is that it scatters your forces.—EMERSON.

37. Your deeds would make the statues of your ancestors blush upon their tombs.—LONGFELLOW.

38. His brother, by throwing him into the canal, had taught him to swim like a fish.

39. Both joined in making him a present.—MACAULAY.

40. To raise a monument to departed worth is to perpetuate virtue.

41. The best way to punish oneself for doing ill seems to me to go and do good.—KINGSLEY.

42. Learn to labor and to wait.—LONGFELLOW.

43. When my time was expired, I worked my passage home; and glad I was to see Old England again, because I loved my country.—GOLDSMITH.

44. To do aught good never will be our task.—MILTON.

45. Outflew

Millions of flaming swords, drawn from the thighs

Of mighty cherubim.—MILTON.

46. They lost no more time in asking questions.—DICKENS.

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47. There, swinging wide at her moorings, lay
The Somerset, British man-of-war.—LONGFELLOW.
48. Fools who came to scoff remained to pray.—GOLD-
SMITH.
49. At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk was dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power.—HALLECK.
50. Stormed at with shot and shell,
Boldly they rode and well.—TENNYSON.
51. Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing,
Onward through life he goes.—LONGFELLOW.
52. Gaily chattering to the pattering
Of the brown nuts downward clattering
Leap the squirrels red and gray.—WHITTIER.
53. The service past, around the pious man,
With ready zeal, each honest rustic ran.—GOLDSMITH.
54. A chieftain, to the Highlands bound,
Cries, "Boatman, do not tarry!
And I'll give thee a silver pound
To row us o'er the ferry."—CAMPBELL.

X

VERB-PHRASES

110. THE PARTS OF VERB-PHRASES

Section 1

We have found many times that the verb of a sentence is not a single word but a group of words—a “verb-phrase.”

1. He *is running* to catch the car.
2. They *have found* their pictures.
3. Anne *will write* soon.
4. I *can see* across the lake.
5. They *would come* if they could.
6. I *do not think* she *can have lost* her ring.
7. They *were injured* in the accident.

We are to-day to find out how these verb-phrases are made up.

The phrase begins with an *auxiliary* word, or with more than one. The auxiliary is a “helper”; it helps by modifying in some way the meaning expressed by the last word of the phrase. For example, in sentence 4 the auxiliary *can* adds the notion of *possibility* to the idea expressed by *see*; the sentence asserts not that the seeing actually takes place, but that it is possible. Moreover, the first auxiliary of the phrase helps by taking on itself all the burden of conjugation. One may see this by inflecting the verb-phrase in the seventh sentence.

PRESENT

I am injured
 Thou art injured
 He is injured
 We are injured

PAST

I was injured
 Thou wast injured
 He was injured
 We were injured

The word *injured* does not change its form to agree with the subject; the auxiliary is really the predicate verb, because it has person and number.

Following the auxiliary comes a participle or the infinitive of the verb we desire to use. You will recognize the present participle by the ending *-ing*; and the past participle, as one of the principal parts of the verb, is also easily recognized. The infinitive is not usually preceded by *to*, but is known to be an infinitive by its older form, in which an infinitive ending was present. It will be safe to assume that when a verbal in a verb-phrase is not a participle it is an infinitive.

If the verb-phrase has two or more auxiliaries, only the first is a predicate verb; all the rest are verbals.

8. I *shall have seen* him there.
9. Thou *shalt have seen* him there.

Shall is the predicate verb, changing in form to agree with the subject; *have*, the second auxiliary, is an infinitive; and *seen* is a past participle.

Name the parts of all the verb-phrases in the seven sentences at the beginning of this section.

Section 2

Name the auxiliaries in these verb-phrases, and tell what verbals follow them:

1. We have seen.
2. I am looking.
3. They can go.
4. Jack will answer.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 5. He was running. | 13. I shall try hard. |
| 6. Frank has skated all day. | 14. No reply was made. |
| 7. The tree is growing. | 15. The invitation has been given. |
| 8. I have told you. | 16. She may have gone. |
| 9. An answer was soon returned. | 17. We might have seen them. |
| 10. You may go. | 18. We have been watching. |
| 11. Anne can sew well. | 19. They should have been found. |
| 12. The birds were caught. | 20. It may have been found. |

III. PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES

Section 1

We have already learned to distinguish active and passive sentences (Lesson 24). We shall now observe the difference in their verb-forms.

- 1a. From this place I *see* the islands.
- b. From this place the islands *are seen*.
- 2a. They *find* fruit on the farm.
- b. Fruit *is found* on the farm.
- 3a. William *studied* his lesson faithfully.
- b. The lesson *was faithfully studied* by William.

We observe that the passive sentence contains a verb-phrase instead of a simple verb. The auxiliary of this verb-phrase is some form of our very irregular verb *be*, and this auxiliary is followed by a past participle.

DEFINITION. The passive verb-phrase consists of the auxiliary *be* and the past participle. It signifies that the subject is the recipient or the product of the action.

Section 2

Change these active sentences to passive sentences. Do not change the tense of the verb.

1. We see our friends every day.
2. They engaged their passage for July fourth.

3. They visited Germany every summer.
4. I found those books helpful.
5. Marion planted these flowers.
6. Philip threw the ball.
7. My brother told me the news.
8. The storm broke this branch.
9. The cyclone did much damage.
10. That carpenter built the house.

Tell the composition of each passive verb-phrase, and the person, number, mood, and tense of the auxiliary.

Section 3

Fill the following blanks with the auxiliaries necessary to make the passive verb-phrases:

1. The bird ——— shot yesterday by my brother.
2. We ——— recognized by our cousins.
3. I ——— found at my desk every day.
4. They ——— blamed for the accident.
5. He ——— made angry by their conduct.

Complete these verb-phrases by supplying the past participle of an appropriate verb:

6. She was ——— by the blow.
7. The books are often ——— by careless children.
8. Clouds were ——— in the west.
9. The cups are ——— every time they are ———.
10. Were you ——— in the crowd?
11. The child was ——— by the fire.
12. What do you think was ——— about it?

112. PASSIVE VERBALS

Section 1

Passive verbals are made like passive verb-phrases. Their auxiliaries are the verbals of *be*, and these are followed by past participles.

1. *To be seen* was his purpose. (Infinitive.)
2. *Being seen*, he came from his hiding-place. (Participle.)
3. He kept himself from *being seen*. (Gerund.)

The past participle used alone is generally passive in significance.

4. *Seen* by the enemy, he was unable to escape.
5. *Invited* by her father, Mabel went to the concert.
6. Tom, *helped* by his friends, soon found a situation.

Classify the verbals in these sentences as active or passive:

7. We came to see the effects of the storm.
8. I do not wish to be found.
9. Our being discovered was unfortunate.
10. The house, being damaged by the storm, was torn down.
11. The child, injured in the fire, suffered greatly.
12. Our finding the treasure was a surprise to our friends.
13. To be known as friendly to their enemy is dangerous.
14. To see a truth is to believe it.
15. It was dangerous to be seen there.
16. To know our faults is the first step toward overcoming them.
17. John was anxious to be invited to the club.
18. The dog was ashamed of being caught in mischief.
19. Captured by the enemy, the soldiers were in danger of being shot.
20. The berries were ready to be picked.

Section 2

Write the passive verbals corresponding to the following active verbals:

- (1) *To catch*, (2) *knowing*, (3) *asking*, (4) *to love*, (5) *to hate*,
(6) *seeing*, (7) *throwing*, (8) *to lay*, (9) *touching*, (10) *to grasp*.

Section 3

Put into sentences the past participles of three weak verbs and those of three strong verbs. Are the participles active or passive in meaning?

113. PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES

Section 1

- 1a. I run.
- b. I am running.
- 2a. I look.
- b. I am looking.

Compare the *b* sentences with the *a* sentences. Both are present tenses, but they do not mean quite the same thing. The *b* sentences say that the action is going on, or continuing, or progressing at the present time, and their predicates are not simple verbs, but verb-phrases. This verb-phrases that asserts action in progress is the PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASE. Its auxiliary is a form of *be*, and this is followed by the present participle.

The active progressive conjugation of *see* follows:

	PRESENT	PAST
<i>Indicative</i>	I am seeing Thou art seeing He is seeing We are seeing	I was seeing Thou wast seeing He was seeing We were seeing
<i>Subjunctive</i>	I be seeing Thou be seeing He be seeing We be seeing	I were seeing Thou were seeing He were seeing We were seeing
<i>Imperative</i>	Be seeing	
<i>Infinitive</i>	To be seeing	

DEFINITION. The progressive verb-phrases consists of the auxiliary *be* and the present participle. It signifies continuation of the action expressed by the participle.

Section 2

Write the progressive verb-phrases that correspond in tense and mood to the simple verbs in these sentences:

1. I hunted for my hat.
2. We looked for a new house.
3. They came quickly forward.
4. George plays ball.
5. Beatrice wrote to her brother.
6. The Jews still suffer in Russia.
7. Anne finds her work difficult.
8. James made a home run.
9. Grant conducted the siege of Vicksburg.
10. Men shovel snow from our pavement.
11. Snow falls fast on our lawn.
12. The water freezes in the gutter.

Section 3

Progressive phrases are sometimes made passive in meaning. The passive progressive phrase requires two auxiliaries of *be*. The first is the predicate verb. The second auxiliary is a present participle (for the progressive notion in the phrase). And the phrase, like all passive phrases, ends with a past participle. The passive-progressive conjugation of *see* follows:

	PRESENT	PAST
<i>Indicative</i>	I am being seen	I was being seen
	Thou art being seen	Thou wast being seen
	He is being seen	He was being seen
	We are being seen	We were being seen
<i>Subjunctive</i>		I were being seen
		Thou were being seen
		He were being seen
		We were being seen

Section 4

Separate these progressive verb-phrases into auxiliaries and verbals. Tell the person, number, mood, and tense of the first auxiliary. If the phrase is passive, mention that.

1. We are praising your careful work.
2. She was teaching them about the habits of ants.
3. They were being taught about the habits of ants.
4. They were learning much of the world about them.
5. They were now studying about birds.
6. The children were hunting for nests.
7. If you were looking for an oriole's nest, you would not look on the ground.
8. We are becoming greatly interested.
9. The work is being done thoroughly.
10. New truths are being learned every day.

114. *Do-PHRASES**Section 1*

- 1a. I wonder if you study faithfully.
- b. I do study.
- 2a. You study Latin.
- b. Do you study Latin?
- 3a. I study Latin this year.
- b. I do not study Latin this year.
- 4a. Come to-morrow.
- b. Do come to-morrow.

Suppose some person addresses to you sentence 1a, and you reply with sentence 1b. Why do you use in your reply the verb-phrase with the auxiliary *do* instead of the simple *I study*? Is it not to give emphasis to your assertion?

Sentence 2a is a declarative sentence, containing a simple verb. Sentence 2b, an interrogative sentence,

contains the *do*-phrase. If you observe your conversation, you will find that you often use this phrase in questions, and that *do* is likely to stand at the beginning of the sentence.

Sentence 3*b* is the negative of 3*a*. When we use *not* in the sentence, we often use the *do*-phrase, placing *not* between the auxiliary and the infinitive of the phrase.

Sentence 4*a* has a simple imperative verb. Sentence 4*b* has the imperative *do*-phrase, and the sentence is more of an entreaty than a command.

DEFINITION. The *do*-phrase adds emphasis to a declarative sentence and entreaty to an imperative sentence. It is often used in interrogative sentences, and in negative sentences containing *not*. It consists of the auxiliary *do* followed by the infinitive.

The past of the *do*-phrase is made with *did*.

5. I *did* study yesterday.
6. *Did* you study Latin last year?
7. I *did* not study Latin last year.

The *do*-phrase is not absolutely necessary in negative and interrogative sentences; especially in literature we find them with simple verbs.

8. Stand not upon the order of your going.—SHAKESPEARE.

9. He spoke not.
10. Know you the land where the myrtle grows?

We rarely use it when the question is asked by an interrogative pronoun or adverb.

11. Who goes there?
12. When are you coming?

And we do not use the auxiliary *do* when the predicate already contains another auxiliary.

13. Have you seen your cousin lately?
14. I have not seen him.

Section 2

Explain the use of the *do*-phrase in each of these sentences. Tell its tense, and its parts.

1. Do you know the name of this street?
2. I did not see the name on the corner.
3. I don't know this one, but I do know the next.
4. Did you see my brother?
5. I don't think I saw him.
6. Do come home with me.
7. Did you go to the opera?
8. I did not go yesterday.
9. Do let me take your hat.
10. Do give me one of your roses.
11. I did give you one and you threw it away.
12. I did not throw it away.

115. THE FUTURE PHRASE

Section 1

Some languages have a special form of the verb, made with an inflectional ending, to express future time. English has never had such a form. Our ancestors used the present tense to express future action, as we do now in such sentences as

I sail next week.

Generally, however, we use for the expression of future time a verb-phrase consisting of the auxiliary *shall* or *will* and an infinitive.

ACTIVE

I shall see
Thou wilt see
He will see

We shall see
You will see
They will see

This is the paradigm of the verb when we desire merely to express futurity. The auxiliary is *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third. The chief exceptions to the uses of the auxiliaries in those persons are given in the next three paragraphs.

I. When we wish to express a promise, a threat, or a resolution, the auxiliary in the first person is *will*.

1. I *will* give it to you to-morrow.
2. I *will* punish him if he does that.
3. We *will* not give this up.

II. *Shall* in the second and third persons does not signify mere futurity. It expresses a command, or a threat, or a promise, or is in some way an expression of the resolution of the speaker with regard to the person or thing named by the subject of the sentence.

4. Thou *shalt* not steal.
5. You *shall* be punished.
6. You *shall* have the gift you asked for.
7. He *shall* not go.

Shall is also in found prophetic passages, where there is, in a measure, the sense of a promised reward or punishment.

8. His leaf also shall not wither; and whatsoever he doeth shall prosper.
9. Therefore the ungodly shall not stand in the judgment.

III. Questions take the auxiliary expected in the reply. If the reply is expected to be *I shall*, the question will be *Shall you?* If the reply is expected to be *I will*, the question should be *Will you?*

10. *Will* you send me those books? *I will* [a promise].
11. *Shall* you go next week? *I shall* [future action].

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12. *Shall* he do this work? He *shall* [resolution of the speaker].

13. *Will* he do it if I ask him to? He *will* [future action].

Section 2

Fill the following blanks with *shall* or *will*, and give the reason for your choice:

1. I —— find the book if possible.
2. He —— not go; I —— not permit it.
3. We —— start to-morrow, I think.
4. The birds —— not build in our trees.
5. I —— give you some flowers if you —— wait.
6. You —— come; I insist upon it.
7. If you —— not go, I —— not wait.
8. —— you be here to-morrow?
9. —— you stop for me?
10. They —— join us if we ask them.
11. I —— not go under any circumstances.
12. She —— come; I —— urge her.
13. —— you go home with me?
14. —— he join us to-day?
15. —— you start to-morrow?
16. You —— go if you wish.
17. Your brother —— not go.
18. —— you find my gloves?
19. —— she buy new gloves?
20. —— you buy new gloves?

Section 3

The future progressive and passive verb-phrases of
see follow:

FUTURE

Progressive

I shall be seeing
Thou wilt be seeing

Passive

I shall be seen
Thou wilt be seen

Progressive

He will be seeing

We shall be seeing

You will be seeing

They will be seeing

Passive

He will be seen

We shall be seen

You will be seen

They will be seen

What progressive and passive auxiliaries are found in these phrases? What verbal is used after *shall*? With what verbal does the progressive phrase end? The passive?

116. PERFECT TENSE-PHRASES

Section I

I

1. I *have* already *done* that.
2. He *has finished* the work he was doing.
3. They *have found* many specimens.

In these sentences we find a verb-phrase composed of *have* plus the past participle. It tells of an action completed before the time of speaking. It is called the PERFECT PHRASE, from a Latin word meaning "completed."

II

4. We *had come* before the storm began.
5. When I called, you *had gone*.
6. After he *had come*, I stopped my work.

These sentences contain verb-phrases consisting of the auxiliary *had* plus the past participle. These phrases put the action farther back than the perfect phrases do.

"The storm began" (past), and *before that* "we had come." "I called" (past), and *before that* "you had gone." This phrase tells of an action that took place before some past time, and is called the PLUPERFECT (or "more than perfect") phrase.

All of these sentences mention the past time before which took place the action expressed by the pluperfect. It is not always necessary to mention that past time, if it is clear in the minds of those conversing.

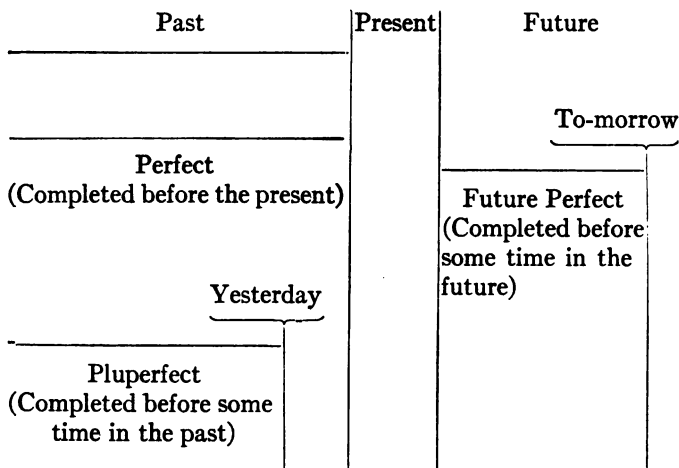
7. I *had* not *heard* of that [before he *told* me].
8. They *had* not *seen* you [before *yesterday*].

III

9. I *shall have gone* before you find those books.
10. When they come, you *will have been* there twice.

"You find the books" in the future; "I shall have gone" before that. The FUTURE PERFECT verb-phrase expresses some action to be completed before some future time. The future auxiliary *shall* or *will* (predicate verb) is followed by the perfect auxiliary *have* (infinitive), and that by the past participle. The future perfect is not common.

The following diagram (which is to be read from left to right) may help to make clear the meaning of our tense phrases. The future phrase may be used for any time in advance of the brief moment we call the present. The simple past tense refers to any time behind the present. "Yesterday" and "to-morrow" are examples of the definite points of time expressed or understood with the pluperfect and future perfect phrases.



In connection with the diagram study the following dialogue:

11. *Do you give to-day to this cause?* [Present.]
12. No, I *have already given* (before this present "to-day").
[Perfect.]
13. *Did you give yesterday?* [Past.]
14. No, I *had already given* (before that past "yesterday").
[Pluperfect.]
15. *Shall you give to-morrow?* [Future].
16. No, I *shall already have given* (before that future "to-morrow"). [Future Perfect.]

Section 2

The perfect phrases are combined with the passive and the progressive. These must contain passive or progressive auxiliaries, and end according to the rules already studied—the progressive with a present participle, the passive with a past participle.

PROGRESSIVE

<i>Perfect</i>	I have been seeing
<i>Pluperfect</i>	I had been seeing
<i>Future Perfect</i>	I shall have been seeing

PASSIVE

<i>Perfect</i>	I have been seen
<i>Pluperfect</i>	I had been seen
<i>Future Perfect</i>	I shall have been seen

Write out the conjugations for the second and third persons singular and for the entire plural.

Section 3

The perfect verbals are made with the auxiliary *have*.

<i>Active</i>	Having seen
<i>Passive</i>	Having been seen
<i>Progressive</i>	Having been seeing
<i>Active</i>	To have seen
<i>Passive</i>	To have been seen
<i>Progressive</i>	To have been seeing

Section 4

Name the verb-phrases and verbal phrases in the following sentences, and tell the parts of which they are composed:

1. I have seen this before.
2. I had not intended to tell you that.
3. Having come to the mountain, we explored its slope.
4. America had not then been discovered.
5. Having been invited, we proceeded to the palace.
6. I have not been asked to this party.
7. I will bring you some fruit.
8. I shall have brought you some fruit; and you will then feel refreshed.

9. I was thought to have found the money.
10. The money was supposed to have been found.
11. I do not think you have seen them to-day.
12. They will be seen to-morrow.
13. Do you think that is true?
14. Do find my hat for me.
15. I have been looking for it.
16. I had been looking before you asked me.
17. The hat will be found soon.
18. He has had the misfortune to be hurt in a collision.
19. The dog was ashamed of having been caught.
20. Having seen his friend, Fred went home.

Section 5

Finish the verb-phrases in these sentences by putting in auxiliaries or past participles as may be necessary. Name the phrase.

1. We ——— expected for an hour.
2. They ——— invited us to go with them.
3. ——— run back several times, the shy creatures at last became friendly.
4. Our friends ——— gone the day before.
5. The ship ——— reported to ——— lost.
6. Men have ——— for their country.
7. We had ——— for neglecting our duty.
8. ——— warned, they turned back.
9. To ——— forgotten our promise was our fault.
10. The promise ——— forgotten.
11. The work ——— not ——— finished when night fell.
12. ——— you seen my cousin Tom to-day?

117. MODAL VERB-PHRASES

Section 1

- 1a. I go.
- b. I can go.
- c. I ought to go.

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In sentence 1a, the verb asserts my *going* as an actual fact. The predicate of sentence 1b, however, asserts only the possibility of my going; that of sentence 1c asserts only the duty of my going. In 1b and 1c the verb-phrases predicate an action *thought of* from certain points of view but not asserted as actual, and these phrases are related to the assertion of actual *going* in 1a somewhat as the other moods are related to the indicative (Lesson 87). We shall, therefore, call these phrases **MODAL PHRASES**.

NOTE.—With respect to the *going*, the phrase is modal (non-indicative: it does not tell whether anybody went or not). The possibility and duty of going, however, are asserted as actual; the auxiliaries *can* and *ought* are therefore in the indicative mood.

The modal auxiliaries are these: *may, can, must, ought, might, could, would, should*. *Might* and *could* are past tenses of *may* and *can*. *Would* and *should* are past tenses of *will* and *shall*. These auxiliaries are followed by infinitives; after *ought* the word *to* is used before the infinitive.

In Appendix B will be found a synopsis of the modal phrase in all its forms.

Section 2

The modal auxiliaries are called **DEFECTIVE** verbs because they lack one of the principal parts—the past participle. They have no participles or infinitives. Their principal parts are these:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
may	might
can	could
must	must
ought	ought
[shall]	should
[will]	would

Since they have no verbals, they can be used only as *first* auxiliaries (predicate verbs) in verb-phrases; for all other words in verb-phrases are participles or infinitives. You can see, then, why it is incorrect to say *had ought*. *Had* requires after it a past participle, and *ought* is not a past participle, but the present or past tense of the verb.

118. THE MEANINGS OF MODAL AUXILIARIES

Section 1

We shall not try to classify all the shades of meaning expressed by the modal phrases, because they are many and are difficult to classify. Some of them, however, we may observe.

Ia. *May* involves a question of permission.

1. *May* I [am I permitted to] take your knife?
2. You *may* [are permitted to] take also my pencil.

Ib. *May* often expresses doubt about a future action.

3. I *may* go to New York next week.
4. He *may* come, but I am not looking for him.

II. *Can* involves a question of power or ability.

5. *Can* I [am I strong or skillful enough to] do that?
6. You *can* [are strong enough to] carry that bag on your shoulder.

Confusion of *may* and *can* is very common. *Can I go?* asking permission, is incorrect. The question is, *May I go?* A negative reply, however, is sometimes made with *can*. Question: *May I go?* Answer: *No, you cannot*.

III. *Must* expresses necessity (7) or obligation (8).

7. You *must* study that lesson to-day.
8. I *must* go at the end of the week.

IV. *Ought* expresses moral obligation.

9. I *ought* to study this lesson to-night.

With the perfect infinitive it expresses something that should have been done in the past.

10. We *ought to have brought* our umbrellas.

V. *Should* often expresses moral obligation.

11. I *should* go, but I am not certain that I shall.

In clauses after *if*, *though*, *when*, and some other conjunctions, *shall* and *should* express futurity, and *will* and *would* the desire or resolution of the subject.

12a. If you *should* go [futurity], you would find your friends there.

b. If you *would* go [were willing to go], you would find your friends there.

13a. If you *should* find your ring, I *should* be very glad.

b. If you *would* only hunt, I am sure you could find it.

14. I am sure I *would* gladly recover the ring.

Section 2

Explain as exactly as you can the meaning of each modal phrase in the following sentences:

1. You may come with me if you like.
2. We should not try to go in this storm.
3. The boys ought to go camping again.
4. I cannot tell you the cause of such storms.
5. We must go now.
6. They may come to-morrow.
7. We could not go when we were invited.
8. We could have gone a week later.
9. If I should go to New York, I will call on your friends.
10. You must not come with me.

11. You ought to take good pictures with your new camera.
12. I should be glad if you would call to-morrow.
13. I would send you the books if I could find them.
14. I cannot close this window.
15. May I offer you my umbrella?

Section 3

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with *may* or *can* and explain the reason for your choice:

1. ——— I go with you?
2. You ——— come to-morrow.
3. ——— you lift this bag?
4. I ——— solve that problem.
5. ——— I ask you a question?
6. ——— you see that house?
7. They ——— come if they choose.
8. She ——— not find her pen.
9. We ——— do that if we try hard.
10. We ——— do that if we wish.
11. ——— you walk so far, do you think?
12. ——— I try?
13. Where ——— I go this afternoon, mamma?
14. How ——— I find your house?
15. I ——— throw the ball to you if you say that I ———.

119. THE PARSING OF VERB-PHRASES

Section 1

1. I shall go to-morrow.

Shall go is a future verb-phrase. The auxiliary is *shall*, and it is followed by the infinitive *go*. *Shall* is first person singular.

2. They were seen on the boat.

Were seen is a passive verb-phrase. The auxiliary is *were*; *seen* is a past participle. *Were* is third person plural, past tense, indicative mood.

3. The cars have been running slowly.

Have been running is a perfect progressive verb-phrase. *Have*, the first auxiliary, is the predicate verb; *been* is a past participle, the progressive auxiliary; and *running* is a present participle. *Have* is third person plural, indicative mood.

4. You may have seen my dog.

May have seen is a modal perfect verb-phrase; second person. The predicate verb is *may*; *have* is an infinitive, and *seen* a past participle. The phrase asserts possibility.

5. He should not have gone before we came.

Should have gone is a modal pluperfect verb-phrase; third person singular. The modal auxiliary (predicate verb) is *should*; *have* is an infinitive, and *gone* a past participle. The phrase asserts an obligation, or duty.

6. I do not remember that.

Do remember is a verb-phrase; first person singular, present, indicative. *Do* is the auxiliary, and *remember* an infinitive. The *do*-phrase is used here because the word *not* is in the sentence to modify the verb-phrase.

NOTE 1.—For a synopsis of all the verb-phrases, see Appendix B.

NOTE 2.—The name of a verb-phrase has as many parts as the phrase has auxiliaries, since each part of the name tells what meaning one auxiliary gives the phrase. Thus in Sentence 3 above, *have* makes the phrase *perfect* and *been* makes it *progressive*.

Section 2

Parse the verb-phrases in these sentences:

1. I have been thinking what I have done.
2. Her sight could not be restored.
3. You should comfort your father.
4. Do find my spectacles.
5. Did you fall on the icy pavement?
6. Have you fallen yet this winter?
7. I may not find them at home.
8. We were running very fast.
9. They shall not be told.
10. The books cannot be found.
11. I will not forget to send them.
12. If I should forget it, you must remind me.
13. Could you find my gloves?
14. Are you studying Latin this year?
15. I do not study it this year because I am beginning German.
16. Have you found the German hard?
17. I cannot learn the lesson in less than an hour.
18. My father has promised to take me to Germany when I can understand the language; so I am studying as hard as I can.
19. I might have begun it in your class, but I could not take so many studies. I must practice my music two hours a day.

120. A GENERAL REVIEW EXERCISE

Analyze the sentences and parse the words in the following paragraph:

Dear Robert,—

In my last letter I told you something about Scott's home at Abbotsford. To-day I will write a little about the part of Scotland of which you are reading in *The Lady of the Lake*. Brother Tom has taken me through the Trossachs, because

he wished our trip to help me in my school work, and he knew that I should be reading about that country next year. We rode along Loch Venachar in a wagonet. The hills in September are covered with purple heather, bright in the sunshine, dark in the shadow. Then we entered the Trossachs. This is a wild, wooded, "bristling" country between Loch Venachar and Loch Katrine. When the coach reached Loch Katrine, we left it and took a boat. Soon we passed "Ellen's Isle," on which Ellen Douglas lived. It is a small island, covered with trees. To cross Loch Katrine required only two hours. Again we rode in a coach till we reached Loch Lomond. The hills in this part of our journey were bare of trees and heather-covered. At Loch Lomond we took the boat again, and rode to the southern end of the lake. The highest mountain in that part of Scotland, Ben Lomond, we passed in this portion of the trip. Through this region Fitz-James was hunting the stag when he first met Ellen Douglas, and through the Trossachs Roderick Dhu sent his messengers to gather the clansmen. The mountain on which Ellen and her father lived in secrecy is visible as one drives along Loch Venachar and through the Trossachs.

We shall sail for home in a few days now, and when I see you I shall have a good deal more to tell you.

Your affectionate cousin,
JACK.

Glasgow,
September 27, 1911.

XI

SOME QUESTIONS OF USAGE

121. THE AGREEMENT OF PRONOUN AND ANTECEDENT

Section 1

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number.

1. Let each *one* take *his* pencil.

Such an antecedent as *one, a person, everyone, each student*, requires after it a singular pronoun. By general consent of the users of the English language, the pronoun *he (his, him)* is used for such reference, without the intention of conveying any notion of sex.

2. Let *each boy* and *girl* take *his* pencil.

Of course, if the antecedent relates to women only, the pronoun is *she (her)*.

3. Let every *girl* open *her* book.

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with pronouns.

Our little company started for the woods. Each person carried a basket in ——— hand and a knapsack on ——— back. In ——— basket ——— expected to collect ferns and mosses, and in ——— knapsack ——— took some sandwiches, a blanket, and ——— rubbers or rubber boots. Each one was in high spirits, expecting to enjoy ——— self particularly well that day.

Section 2.

The pronoun agrees with a collective antecedent exactly as a verb agrees with a collective subject (see Lesson 81): when the group is thought of as a whole, the pronoun is singular; when the members of the group are thought of separately, the pronoun is plural.

Read the following sentences, using the correct pronoun and verb forms:

1. The crowd shouted as loud as (it, they) could.
2. The mob followed (its, their) leader.
3. The crew began to do (its, their) work.
4. The committee was unanimous in (its, their) report.
5. The church (has, have) engaged (its, their) minister for next year.
6. The committee (hope, hopes) for a larger sum, but (it, they) (has, have) received only a dollar.
7. The society has already done much, and (it, they) (expect, expects) to do more.
8. The society (was, were) pleased because the prize had been won by one of (its, their) members.

122. GENERAL REVIEW OF PRONOUN FORMS

Write the following sentences, using the correct forms of the pronouns:

NOTE.—For the rules governing these forms, see Lessons 66, 94 (Section 3), 100 (IV), and 121 (Sections 1 and 2).

1. He told a good story to John and (I, me).
2. Mary and (I, me) will soon be there.
3. My sister, (who, whom) I expected would help me, did not appear.
4. My sister, (who, whom) I expected to help me, did not appear.
5. We decided that it was (he, him).
6. We thought it to be (he, him).
7. His brother was braver than (he, him) [was brave].
8. She likes him better than [she likes] (I, me).

9. Do you object to (me, my) coming?
10. He praised her more than (I, me).
11. Had you thought of (it, its) being John?
12. Jessie is more studious than (I, me).
13. Please let Tom and (I, me) go to the play.
14. We were surprised to find that it was (he, him).
15. May Tom and (I, me) go to the play?
16. Tom and (I, me) were the only ones permitted to go.
17. She permitted Tom and (I, me) to go.
18. If you were (I, me), would you do this?
19. I knew that it was (he, him).
20. They wished Ruth and (I, me) to be there.
21. If I were (he, him) I would start at once.
22. I fully expected the man to be (he, him).
23. (Who, whom) do you think I am?
24. Let the prize be given to (whoever, whomsoever) deserves it.
25. The man (who, whom) I took to be your brother is across the street.
26. (Who, whom) do you suppose the girls chose for poet?
27. (Who, whom) did you take him to be?
28. (Who, whom) did you think that it was?
29. (Who, whom) was he supposed to be?
30. (Who, whom) do you think I resemble?
31. I saw the person (who, whom) you described.
32. I will give the reward to (whoever, whomsoever) deserves it.
33. He suggested (who, whom) we should invite.
34. He suggested (who, whom) to invite.
35. He suggested (who, whom) should be invited.
36. He told us (who, whom) he wished to see.
37. Many a soldier gave (his, their) life for (his, their) country.
38. She is one of those women that always (become, becomes) angry if anyone opposes (her, them).
39. Let everyone give the measure (his, their) support.
40. She laughed like one out of (her, their) mind.

123. MODIFIERS

Section 1

The demonstrative must agree with its noun in number.

This kind, that kind are singular.

These kinds, those kinds are plural.

The greatest care must be taken not to place the plural demonstrative before the singular noun.

Compose three sentences containing the expression *this kind* and three containing *that kind*.

Section 2

Adjectives and adverbs are frequently confused in use. In the following sentences, choose the correct form from the words in parenthesis, and explain the reason for your choice.

1. (Most, almost) all of my friends live here.
2. We like him (full, fully) as well as his brother.
3. These problems are not (near, nearly) as hard as the others.
4. John is (some, somewhat) heavier than his brother.
5. I did not enjoy it (near, nearly) as much to-day.
6. The nuts are (most, almost) gone.
7. We were (some, somewhat) weary before night.
8. He is not (near, nearly) as good a player as you are.
9. I lost (most, almost) all of my plays.
10. Your team played (some, somewhat) better than ours.

Section 3

Modifiers should be so placed in the sentence that there can be no doubt as to what words they are intended to modify. Otherwise the meaning of the sen-

tence is not clear. Tell what words each italicized word in the following sentences modifies, and explain the exact meaning of each sentence:

1. There were *only* two peaches in the basket.
2. I saw *only* my brother.
3. I *only* saw my brother; Will did not see him.
4. I did not touch the books; I *only* saw them.
5. I came *only* to see you.
6. She *instantly* told him to go.
7. She told him to go *instantly*.
8. The water *nearly* freezes always.
9. The water freezes *nearly* always.
10. He was *really* kind.
11. He *really* was kind.
12. I *merely* wish to go; I do not expect to.
13. I wished *merely* to go; I do not care to talk on the way.
14. I *almost* believed that.
15. I believed a story *almost* as improbable as that.

124. THE USE OF CONNECTIVES

Section 1

Conjunctions should be so placed there can be no doubt as to the words or groups of words they are intended to connect.

1. They contributed not only *money* but also *supplies*.
2. They not only *contributed* money but also *sent* supplies.
3. The boy could be neither *frightened* nor *bribed*.
4. He was not only *disappointed* but also *vexed*.
5. They would forgive neither *me* nor my *sister*.
6. The weather disappointed not only *me* but also many *others*.

Section 2

The conjunction *and* should never be used to ~~join~~ an

adjective clause to its antecedent. A relative pronoun does connective work in such a construction.

1. He sent a paper carefully prepared, *which* secured him the position.
2. Soon we found a book, excellent and cheap, *which* had been recommended to us.

Section 3

The word *like* should not be used as a conjunction to introduce a manner clause.

1. Do those problems *as* you did those we had last week.
2. He acts *as if* he did not see us.
3. You spoke *as if* you were vexed.
4. You don't speak *as* we do.
5. That bird flies *as* a swallow does.
6. Work fast, *as* we do.
7. He studies hard, *as* we do.
8. You act *as if* you were angry.
9. You did not act *as if* you saw us.
10. Write these words just *as* I have written them.

Like is often used with the meaning of "similar to," or "in a similar way," and is followed by a noun or pronoun.

11. He runs like a deer.
12. She looks like her mother.
13. John, like his father, is tall.
14. He is like his sister.
15. This feels like good velvet.
16. It sounds like an organ.
17. That plant looks like a violet.
18. Your sister is like you.
19. Like you, your sister is tall.
20. This flower smells like a rose.

125. THE AGREEMENT OF SUBJECT AND VERB

Section 1

One of the most common errors in usage is the use of *don't* for *doesn't*. *Don't*, a contraction of *do not*, is plural; *doesn't*, a contraction of *does not*, is singular number, third person. The latter is the form to use after all singular noun subjects and after the pronoun *he, she, it*.

Construct five sentences containing each verb. Observe carefully the agreement of subject and verb.

Section 2

Read the following sentences, using the correct forms of the verbs:

NOTE.—For the rules governing these forms see Lessons 80 and 81.

1. A bouquet of flowers (was, were) presented to her.
2. A book-case together with the books (was, were) left at our house.
3. Neither Jessie nor her sister (was, were) invited.
4. Either Alice or Anna (expects, expect) to go.
5. Neither Mary nor John (is, are) willing to go.
6. A careful study of the rules (is, are) necessary.
7. A book of poems (was, were) left on the desk.
8. One of the scenes that I liked best (was, were) the mountains of Tennessee.
9. A crowd of men and women (was, were) hurrying by.
10. The audience (was, were) pleased.
11. The audience (was, were) weeping.
12. The number of men chosen (was, were) large.
13. A number of soldiers (was, were) approaching.
14. The crowd (was, were) noisy.
15. Each of the boys (was, were) elected to a good position.
16. Neither of the horses (was, were) able to work.
17. She is one of those unselfish girls that (looks, look) out for others.
18. The multitude (was, were) of one mind.

19. The multitude (was, were) very great.
20. A number (was, were) inclined to wait.
21. The number present (was, were) unknown.
22. Every man, woman, and child (was, were) present.
23. The committee (was, were) unable to agree, and (it, they) gave up the discussion.
24. Five dollars (is, are) the price.
25. Three hours (is, are) a long time to wait.
26. One of you (is, are) wrong.
27. The public (is, are) invited to be present.
28. There (go, goes) your brothers.
29. The flower that I saw in the mountains (was, were) brilliant in color.
30. One of my cousins (is, are) going to Newport.
31. Three-fourths of the soldiers (was, were) sick.
32. Three-fourths of the area (was, were) desert.

126. THE PAST TENSE AND THE PAST PARTICIPLE

Careless speakers of English are apt to confuse the past tense and the past participle of certain strong verbs. We must remember that the past tense is used alone, without an auxiliary; and that the past participle is used after *have* (*has*) and *had* in tense phrases, and after some form of *be* in passive phrases.

Read the following sentences supplying the correct forms of the verbs placed in brackets after each pair. If you are in doubt when you are preparing the lesson, consult the list of strong verbs in Appendix B.

- 1a. I —— this work yesterday. [Begin.]
- b. I have already —— the work.
- 2a. The dog —— the child. [Bite.]
- b. The dog has —— the child.
- 3a. The wind —— hard yesterday. [Blow.]
- b. The wind has —— off my hat.
- 4a. I —— my new watch. [Break.]

- b.* I have —— my watch.
- 5*a.* We —— Mary president of our society. [Choose.]
- b.* We have —— a new president.
- 6*a.* The children —— in slowly. [Come.]
- b.* The children had —— before we called them.
- 7*a.* I —— my work as well as I could. [Do.]
- b.* I have —— my work as well as I could.
- 8*a.* We —— at one of the springs. [Drink.]
- b.* I have never —— such good water before.
- 9*a.* We —— very slowly. [Drive.]
- b.* We have never —— this horse fast.
- 10*a.* We —— our lunch under the trees. [Eat.]
- b.* We had —— our lunch before they came.
- 11*a.* The boy —— from the tree. [Fall.]
- b.* The boy has —— from the tree.
- 12*a.* The water —— in the pitcher. [Freeze.]
- b.* The water has not —— this time.
- 13*a.* We —— all we could afford to give. [Give.]
- b.* We have —— all we could afford to give.
- 14*a.* The trees —— very fast. [Grow.]
- b.* The trees have —— a foot higher.
- 15*a.* We —— in the long grass. [Hide.]
- b.* We had hardly —— when they appeared.
- 16*a.* They —— the answers to the puzzles. [Know.]
- b.* They have —— those answers a long time.
- 17*a.* We —— at full speed. [Ride.]
- b.* We have —— the horses very fast.
- 18*a.* The bell —— . [Ring.]
- b.* Has the bell ——?
- 19*a.* We —— early. [Rise.]
- b.* We had —— early that morning.
- 20*a.* The boys —— fast. [Run.]
- b.* The boys have —— a mile.
- 21*a.* We —— you coming. [See.]
- b.* We have —— you coming for some time.
- 22*a.* The sun —— below the horizon. [Sink.]
- b.* The sun has —— below the horizon.

- 23a. The girl ——— gently. [Speak.]
 b. She has ——— twice.
- 24a. The lion ——— at his prey. [Spring.]
 b. He had ——— before the hunter saw him.
- 25a. The boys ——— across the stream. [Swim.]
 b. They have ——— a long distance.
- 26a. The burglar ——— the jewels. [Steal.]
 b. The jewels were ——— by the burglar.
- 27a. We ——— our umbrellas. [Take.]
 b. We have ——— our umbrellas.
- 28a. The child ——— his dress. [Tear.]
 b. The child has ——— his dress.
- 29a. They ——— away their guns and ran. [Throw.]
 b. They have ——— away their guns and ran.
- 30a. We ——— our oldest clothes. [Wear.]
 b. We have ——— our oldest clothes on this trip.
- 31a. The girl ——— a very good letter. [Write.]
 b. The girl has ——— a very good letter.

127. THE USE OF THE INFINITIVE

Section 1

After the verb *try* it is correct to use the infinitive, not the conjunction *and* with another predicating verb.

I will try *to please* you.

Careful study of the meaning of this sentence shows that *and please* would not express the thought intended.

Write five sentences containing infinitives after *try*.

Section 2

It is not considered good form to put a modifier between *to* and the verbal of an infinitive. The adverb modifying an infinitive should be placed before the *to* or after the verbal.

1. I was afraid even to try.

2. I wished to remind her kindly of her promise.
3. I did not wish merely to see you; I wished also to talk to you.
4. We tried to forget in a measure our disappointment.
5. We managed twice almost to succeed, but we finally failed.
6. We did not expect to fail completely.
7. She was forced to write the letter hurriedly.

Section 3

1. We hoped to arrive before dinner.

The present infinitive is required in this sentence because the perfect (*to have arrived*) would throw back the *arrival* before the *hoping*. That would be impossible, because we do not hope concerning an affair already settled. Nevertheless, we often hear the perfect infinitive incorrectly used in such a sentence.

Explain why the present infinitive is correct in the following sentences:

2. He would have liked to go.
3. I was sorry to miss you.
4. I was pleased to see you.
5. I should have been willing to give it to you if you had asked.
6. I wished to go.
7. I should have liked to go.
8. I shall be pleased to see you.
9. We hoped to find you there.
10. We expected to see an air-ship.
11. We should have been willing to do anything to please you.
12. I should have been glad to be with you.
13. I expected to settle that business sooner.
14. We were fortunate to find you in.

Explain why the perfect infinitive is correct in the following sentences:

15. I am sorry to have missed you.
16. I am pleased to have seen you.
17. I am glad to have finished.
18. I was sorry to have lost my purse.
19. We are happy to have found you at home.

128. *SIT* AND *SET*

The verbs *sit* and *set* are often confused. This is not remarkable, for the words, besides being somewhat similar in sound and spelling, are related in meaning. The verb *set* is derived from *sit*, and once had an ending that meant "to cause." To *sit* is "to place oneself, to rest." To *set* is "to place, to put"; i. e., "to cause to sit or rest."

1. The glass *sits* on the table.
2. I *set* my glass ("caused it to rest") on the table.

Sit is strong and usually intransitive; *set* is weak and commonly transitive.

The principal parts of these verbs are:

sit,	sat,	sat
set,	set,	set

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with forms of *sit* and *set*; explain your choice, and tell what forms you have supplied:

3. We had —— there an hour when we saw you.
4. I —— the basket on the table this morning.
5. I —— on the bench in the park yesterday.
6. We have —— our umbrellas in the corner.
7. Jack has been ——ing in our hammock to-day.
8. They —— down when they were tired.
9. I am ——ing in a comfortable chair.

10. I have —— here an hour.
11. You may —— my vase on the table.
12. Please —— in this chair.
13. —— down as soon as you are tired.
14. We had not —— there ten minutes when you came.
15. —— the plant in the window.

Section 2

Besides the common use of the words as shown by the sentences above, the following expressions, hard to put under the definitions, are correct:

1. The sun *sets* in the west.
2. The current *sets* to the north.
3. We *set* out early in the morning.
4. We *set* to work in earnest.
5. He *set* his son up in business.
6. The dress *sits* well.
7. He *sits* his horse admirably.
8. The *sitting* hen *sits* on her eggs.
9. The lady *sits* for her portrait.
10. The court will *sit* in January.
11. The nurse *sits* up with the patient.
12. The patient will *sit* up next week.

Find in the dictionary the definition of *sit* and *set* in each of these twelve sentences.

129. LIE AND LAY

The verbs *lie* and *lay*, also, are sometimes confused. They are somewhat similar in form, and they are related in meaning also. *Lay* was derived from *lie*, and once had the ending which meant "to cause." To *lie* is "to place oneself in a horizontal position; to rest." To *lay* is "to put, to place"; i. e., "to cause to lie."

1. The book *lies* on the table.
2. I will *lay* the book ("cause it to lie") on the table.

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Lie is strong and intransitive; *lay* is weak and usually transitive.

The principal parts of these verbs are:

lie,	lay,	lain
lay,	laid,	laid

Supply some form of *lie* or *lay* in the following sentences; explain your choice and tell what form you have used:

3. The child ——— quiet.
4. I ——— down every afternoon.
5. I have ——— the book on the table.
6. I had ——— there an hour when you came.
7. They have ——— their books down.
8. ——— your books on the table.
9. We had ——— there an hour before you called.
10. ——— the book on the table.
11. I am going to ——— down.
12. She has ——— the book down.
13. She has ——— down an hour this afternoon.
14. We ——— down to sleep yesterday.
15. The books ——— on the table.
16. ——— down this afternoon.
17. I had ——— the book down before you called.
18. The books have ——— on the table all day.
19. ——— your book down.
20. I have no time to ——— down.
21. She has ——— down because her head aches.
22. Those knives ——— on the table yesterday.
23. We will ——— your books on the shelf.
24. Try to ——— on your side.
25. Now ——— flat on your back.

Section 2

The following expressions, hard to put under the defini-

tions already given, are correct. If you have a large dictionary, try to find them in that.

1. Ireland *lies* west of England.
2. The Indians *lie* in ambush.
3. We will let the question *lie* over for the present.
4. The hen *lays* an egg every day.
5. I will *lay* the plan before Mother.
6. They expect to *lay* out their money in city lots.
7. We will *lay* out the garden carefully.
8. He did not *lay* this up against us.
9. The enemy will *lay* waste the country.

130. AN ADJECTIVE OR AN ADVERB

Section 1

We may sometimes be puzzled to know whether we should use an adjective or an adverb after a verb. Shall we say "The apple tastes *sour*," or "*sourly*"? "The rose smells *sweet*," or "*sweetly*"?

The answer to the question must be discovered through a study of the office of the word in the sentence. Does *sour* (or *sourly*) tell how the apple performs the act of tasting? Does *sweet* (or *sweetly*) tell how the rose performs the act of smelling? Are these words adverbs of manner? Or do they describe some quality of the apple and the rose, and therefore do the work of adjectives? A careful study of the use of these words in the sentence shows us that we require here the predicate adjective.

The same verb is followed sometimes by an adjective, sometimes by an adverb, according to its meaning in the particular sentence.

- 1a. The child's hand felt soft.
- b. The child's hand felt softly across the table.
- 2a. She looked pleasant.
- b. She looked pleasantly at us.

In *1a felt* expresses not action but being, and the adjective *soft* tells a quality of the hand. The hand *is soft*, one discovers that by feeling of it. In *4b felt* is a verb of action, and the adverb *softly* tells how the action was performed.

In *2a looks* expresses being, and the adjective *pleasant* describes the lady—she *is a pleasant person* in appearance. In *2b looks* expresses action, and the adverb *pleasantly* tells the manner of looking.

Section 2

Name and explain the form that follows the verb in the sentences below:

1. She looks pretty.
2. The song sounds sweet in my ears.
3. Do you feel warm?
4. The flowers look beautiful.
5. The sun shines bright.
6. These oranges taste sweet.
7. The boy lay quiet.
8. This velvet feels smooth.
9. The cliffs look grand.
10. This cream tastes good.
11. She looks happy.
12. She looks well.
13. The old man cannot taste very well.
14. Mary looked happily at her mother.
15. How sweet the rose smells!
16. The apple feels ripe.
17. I feel happy.
18. I feel well.
19. I feel bad.
20. Giving John a ride made me feel good.
21. I felt carefully for the matches.
22. The boy appeared quick.

23. The boy appeared quickly.
24. The teacher looked stern.
25. The teacher looked sternly at me.
26. A rose by any other name would smell as sweet.

Section 3

Compose ten sentences containing the verbs *look*, *sound*, *feel*, *taste*, *smell*, followed by adjectives or adverbs, and explain the reason for your choice.

APPENDIX A

SEX-REFERENCE IN NOUNS

NOTE.—In the body of this book the authors have said nothing about the “gender” (or *sex-reference*, as they prefer to call it) of nouns, believing that it is an error to confuse the sex-reference of English nouns with the grammatical gender of nouns in Greek, Latin, German, and French. True *gender* as a grammatical distinction belongs to the system of noun inflection which Modern English has lost. The material usually presented under *gender* in English grammars belongs rather to a study of *word-building* than to grammar. For the convenience, however, of teachers who may not share this view, some material for the study of this topic is here appended.

In English nouns there are three ways of indicating difference of sex-reference:

I. By means of different endings.

1. The suffix *-ess* indicates the feminine: *author, authoress; god, goddess; poet, poetess*.

a. Some masculines in *-er* drop the vowel of the last syllable before adding *-ess*: *hunter, huntress; tiger, tigress; songster, songstress*.

b. Some masculines drop *-er* or *-or* before adding *-ess*: *governor, governess; sorcerer, sorceress*.

c. Some forms are irregular and must be explained historically: *abbot, abbess; duke, duchess; emperor, empress*.

2. The suffix *-trix* indicates the feminine: *executor, executrix; administrator, administratrix; testator, testatrix*.

3. *-ine* is a feminine suffix: *hero, heroine; Paul, Pauline; Joseph, Josephine*.

4. *-a* is a feminine suffix: *sultan, sultana; Augustus, Augusta; Julius, Julia; Louis, Louisa; don, donna*.

5. Other endings for sex-reference are seen in *beau, belle* (which are masculine and feminine forms of the French ad-

jective meaning "beautiful"); *Jesse, Jessie; widower, widow; czar, czarina.*

II. By means of different words in compounds: *he-bear, she-bear; man-servant, maid-servant; peacock, peahen; land-lord, landlady; bridegroom, bride.*

III. By means of entirely different words: *boy, girl; buck, roe; sir, madame; uncle, aunt; husband, wife.*

Tell the sex-reference of each of the following words. How is the word of opposite sex-reference formed?

(1) *Charlotte*, (2) *equestrienne*, (3) *gentlewoman*, (4) *count*, (5) *earl*, (6) *lass*, (7) *Louise*, (8) *mistress*, (9) *murderer*, (10) *prioress*, (11) *prince*, (12) *benefactor*, (13) *heir*, (14) *land-gravine*, (15) *marchioness*, (16) *mermaid*, (17) *nun*.

APPENDIX B

THE FORMS OF SOME VERBS

I. THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF STRONG VERBS

NOTE.—Poetic or archaic forms are enclosed in parentheses. Some of these archaic forms of the participle are still in use as adjectives; such forms are followed by “adj.”

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked, awoke
bear	bore	borne, born (see Note 2)
beat	beat	beaten
beget	begot	begot (begotten, adj.)
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
bid	bade	bidden
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave, “adhere”	(clave)	cleaved
cleave, “split”	clove, cleft	cloven, cleft
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
crow	crew, crowed	crowed
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forebore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got (gotten, adj.)
give	gave	given
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, hanged	hung, hanged (see Notes 1, 2)
heave	hove, heaved	heaved
hold	held	held
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived, rove	rived, riven
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
seethe	seethed (sod)	seethed (sodden)
shake	shook	shaken
shear	sheared, shore	shorn
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown, showed
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shrive	shrove, shrived	shriven, shrived

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
spin	spun	spun
spit	spit (spat)	spit
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	stove	stove
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stunk (stank)	stunk
stride	strode	strode
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
strow, strew	strowed, strewed	strown, strewn, strowed, strewed
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trod, trodden
wake	woke, waked	woke, waked
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven

win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

NOTE 1.—Occasionally a strong verb has a weak form, as *hanged*, *waked*, *crowed*. This is because by far the greater number of our verbs are weak, and the strong ones tend to follow the fashion of the larger class. We see the same tendency in the language of the child, when he says *seed* for *saw*, *taked* for *took*, *runned* for *ran*. Many verbs that were strong in an older period of the language have in Modern English gone altogether into the weak class.

NOTE 2.—*Born* is used only with the meaning "to come into the world." *Hanged* is used only of "execution by hanging."

II. SOME PECULIAR WEAK VERBS. See Lesson 85

LIST I

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
bereave	bereft, bereaved	bereft, bereaved
beseech	besought	besought
bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt, dreamed
feel	felt	felt
flee	fled	fled
freight	fraught, freighted	fraught, freighted
hear	heard	heard
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
lean	leant, leaned	leant, leaned
leap	leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped
leave	left	left
lose	lost	lost
mean	meant	meant
reave	reft	reft

PRESENT

said
sought
sold
shod
slept
swept
taught
told
thought
wept

PAST

said
sought
sold
shod
slept
swept
taught
told
thought
wept

PAST PARTICIPLE

said
sought
sold
shod
slept
swept
taught
told
thought
wept

LIST 2

clothe
have
make

clad, clothed
had
made

clad, clothed
had
made

LIST 3

bent
built
gild
gird
lend
rent
send
spend

bent
built, builded
gilt, gilded
girt, girded
lent
rent, rended
sent
spent

bent
built, builded
gilt, gilded
girt, girded
lent
rent
sent
spent

LIST 4

bled
bred
fed
hide
lead
light
meet
read
speed

bled
bred
fed
hid
led
lit, lighted
met
read
sped

bled
bred
fed
hidden
led
lit, lighted
met
read
sped

III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *Be*

PRESENT STEM

INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I am	We are	I be	We be
2. Thou art	You are	Thou be	You be
3. He is	They are	He be	They be

IMPERATIVE	INFINITIVE
2. Be (thou) Be (you)	To be

PARTICIPLE	GERUND
Being	Being

PAST STEM

INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
1. I was	We were	I were	We were
2. Thou wast	You were	Thou were	You were
3. He was	They were	He were	They were

PAST PARTICIPLE

Been

IV. THE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *See*

PRESENT STEM

INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
1. I see	We see	I see	We see
2. Thou seest	You see	Thou see	You see
3. He sees	They see	He see	They see

IMPERATIVE	INFINITIVE
2. See (thou) See (you)	To see

PARTICIPLE	GERUND
Seeing	Seeing

PAST STEM

INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
1. I saw	We saw	I saw	We saw
2. Thou sawest	You saw	Thou saw	You saw
3. He saw	They saw	He saw	They saw

PAST PARTICIPLE

Seen

TENSE-PHRASES

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	IMPERATIVE
<i>Perfect</i>	I have seen	I have seen	
<i>Pluperfect</i>	I had seen	I had seen	
<i>Future</i>	I shall see		
<i>Future Perfect</i>	I shall have seen		

PROGRESSIVE PHRASES

<i>Present</i>	I am seeing	I be seeing	Be seeing
<i>Past</i>	I was seeing	I were seeing	
<i>Future</i>	I shall be seeing		
<i>Perfect</i>	I have been seeing		
<i>Pluperfect</i>	I had been seeing	I had been seeing	
<i>Future Perfect</i>	I shall have been seeing		

MODAL PHRASES

<i>Present</i>	I may (can, must, ought to) see	[see
<i>Past</i>	I might (could, must, ought to, would, should)	
<i>Perfect</i>	I may (can, must, ought to) have seen	
<i>Pluperfect</i>	I might (could, must, ought to, would, should) have seen	

MODAL PROGRESSIVE PHRASES

<i>Present</i>	I may (can, must, ought to) be seeing	
<i>Past</i>	I might (could, would, should, must, ought to) be seeing	

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Perfect I may (can, must, ought to) have been seeing
I might (could, must, ought to, would, should)
have been seeing

DO-PHRASES

Present I do see I do see Do see
Past I did see I did see

VERBAL PHRASES

INFINITIVE PARTICIPLE AND GERUND

Present Progressive To be seeing
Perfect To have seen Having seen
Perfect Progressive To have been seeing Having been seeing

PASSIVE TENSE-PHRASES

INDICATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE IMPERATIVE

Present I am seen I be seen Be seen
Past I was seen I were seen
Future I shall be seen
Perfect I have been seen
Pluperfect I had been seen I had been seen
Future Perfect I shall have been seen

PASSIVE PROGRESSIVE PHRASES

Present I am being seen
Past I was being seen I were being seen

PASSIVE MODAL PHRASES

Present I may (can, must, ought to) be seen

Past I might (could, must, ought to, would, should)
be seen

Perfect I may (can, must, ought to) have been seen
Pluperfect I might (could, must, ought to, would, should)
have been seen

PASSIVE VERBAL PHRASES

INFINITIVES PARTICIPLE AND GERUND

Present To be seen Being seen
Perfect To have been seen Having been seen

APPENDIX C

THE CHIEF RULES OF SYNTAX AFFECTING ENGLISH USAGE

1. The subject of the sentence must be in the nominative case.

He and *I* went to the concert.

2. The direct and indirect object of a verb and the object of a preposition must be in the objective case.

She saw *us*. She gave *us* a book. She spoke to *us*.

3. A pronoun in the absolute construction must be in the nominative case.

She being down, I have the placing of the British crown.

We sitting, as I said, the cock crew loud.

Roll on, *thou* deep and dark blue ocean, roll!

4. A noun or pronoun standing directly before a gerund must be in the genitive case.

John's writing the letter so carefully secured him the position.

My going there will depend upon *your* giving your consent.

5. The subjective complement after a predicate verb must be in the nominative case.

It is *I*. It was *he*. It must be *she*.

6. The subjective complement of an infinitive must be in the objective case if it refers to a noun or pronoun in the objective case.

I took it to be *him*.

7. A verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

We *are* your friends.

He *is* your friend.

He *doesn't* [not *don't*] know you.

8. Two or more subjects connected by *and* require a plural verb, because they signify more than one.

Mary and I *are* your friends.

9. Two or more singular subjects connected by *or* require a singular verb, because only one can be concerned in the predication.

He or his brother *is* going.

10. A past participle must be used in a verb-phrase after the auxiliary *have*.

I *have seen* your brother to-day.

11. The comparative degree of the adjective should be used when two persons or objects are in question; the superlative is used in speaking of three or more.

She is the *taller* of the two sisters.

She is the *tallest* of the three girls.

12. The demonstratives *this* and *that* must agree in number with the nouns they modify.

Books of *this* kind are rare.

I do not like *that* kind of flowers.

13. Adverbs must be employed as modifiers of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

He did his work *well* [not *good*].

The farmer walked *slowly* [not *slow*].

14. The adverb *only* is generally placed immediately before or after the word it modifies.

Goldsmith could live *only* by working day and night.

Such disputes can be settled *only* by arms.

15. An adverb should not be allowed to separate *to* from the infinitive with which it goes.

I came *absolutely* to detest him.

I wish *thoroughly* to comprehend your position.

APPENDIX D

SOME RULES FOR PUNCTUATION

1. A vocative noun is set off from the rest of the sentence by the comma.

George, please close the door.
Please, George, close the door.

2. An appositive noun is set off by commas.

Longfellow, an American poet, has a bust in Westminster Abbey.

3. An absolute group is separated from the rest of the sentence by the comma.

The sun having set, we turned homeward.
The boy, his friend having gone, put away his playthings.
To tell the truth, I cannot believe that.

4. A short direct quotation is preceded by a comma.

William writes, "I shall return next week."

5. A long direct quotation is preceded by a colon.

Wordsworth says of Peter Bell:

"A primrose by a river's brim
A yellow primrose was to him,
And it was nothing more."

6. The words *yes* and *no* are set off by commas when they are followed by other words in the sentence.

Yes, William is coming to-morrow.

7. Quotation marks inclose every direct quotation. A quotation within a quotation is inclosed in single quotation marks.

"Was it Shakespeare who said, 'Who steals my purse steals trash?'" asked my friend Perkins.

8. When several paragraphs are quoted, quotation marks are used at the beginning of each paragraph and at the end of the entire quotation.

9. When a quotation is broken, each part is inclosed by quotation marks.

“Come,” said my father, “let us find that knife you lost.”

10. The place of a word omitted is generally indicated by a comma.

Homer was the greatest genius; Virgil, the better artist.

11. Words forming a series in the same construction, without a conjunction between them, are separated by commas. Even when *and* occurs between the last two words of the series, the comma is also used.

Birds, bees, and butterflies flitted about among the flowers.

12. Groups of words forming a series are frequently separated by commas, unless there are only two groups joined by a conjunction.

Love of country and faithfulness in her service are the qualities of a patriot.

Kindness of heart, and gentleness of manner, and truthfulness in speech are qualities of a gentleman.

13. Pairs of words or expressions are separated by commas.

The rich and the poor, the high and the low, the young and the old enjoyed reading those books.

14. A participle or a participial or adjective group at the beginning of a sentence is set off by a comma.

Though beaten this time, I shall yet triumph.

Ardent and intrepid on the field of battle, Monmouth was everywhere else effeminate and irresolute.

15. Groups of words placed between essential parts of the sentence and so breaking its continuity, are set off by commas.

Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again;
But Error, wounded, writhes with pain and dies.

16. Descriptive adjective clauses are set off by commas; restrictive adjective clauses are not.

Bunyan, who was a poor tinker, was persecuted for his religion.

The John Smith that explored Virginia narrowly escaped being killed by the Indians.

17. An adverbial clause, unless very short and very closely related to the main clause, is separated from it by commas.

Freely we serve, because we freely love.

If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.

Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also.

18. The parts of a compound sentence, if fairly long and containing dependent clauses, are separated by semicolons; if short and simple, they are separated by commas.

Whither thou goest I will go; and where thou lodgest I will lodge.

Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man; and, therefore, if a man write little, he had need have a great memory; if he confer little, he had need have a present wit; and if he read little, he had need have great cunning, to seem to know that he doth not.—BACON.

19. A period is used at the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence.

20. A period is used after initials, signatures, and abbreviations.

John Smith, M. D., LL. D.

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21. An interrogation point is used after an interrogative sentence.

How are you this morning?

22. An exclamation point is used after an exclamatory sentence and after an interjection.

Heavens! How can I get out of this trouble!

23. An apostrophe is used in place of an omitted letter, before the -s of the genitive singular, and after the -s of the genitive plural.

John O'Rourke isn't there now.

John's cap. The boys' sleds.

24. The hyphen is used to separate the parts of a compound word, or to mark the division of syllables.

Man-of-war.

Separate is divided as follows: sep-a-rate.

25. In writing, a caret shows where an omission has been supplied.

The day ^{was} ^ very rainy.

26. Marks of parenthesis, (), are used to inclose an expression inserted in the body of a sentence with which it has no connection in construction.

Pride, in some disguise or other (often a secret to the proud man himself) is the most ordinary spring of action among men.

27. Brackets, [], are used to distinguish the remarks of one who edits or quotes from the original sentence written by another.

Some bishop [it was Bishop McIlvaine] said that better than I can say it.

28. The dash is used when a sentence breaks off abruptly and the subject is changed.

Have you ever—but no; that is not a fair question.

29. The dash is sometimes used instead of the parenthesis.

I think—I am not sure—that we shall go to-morrow.

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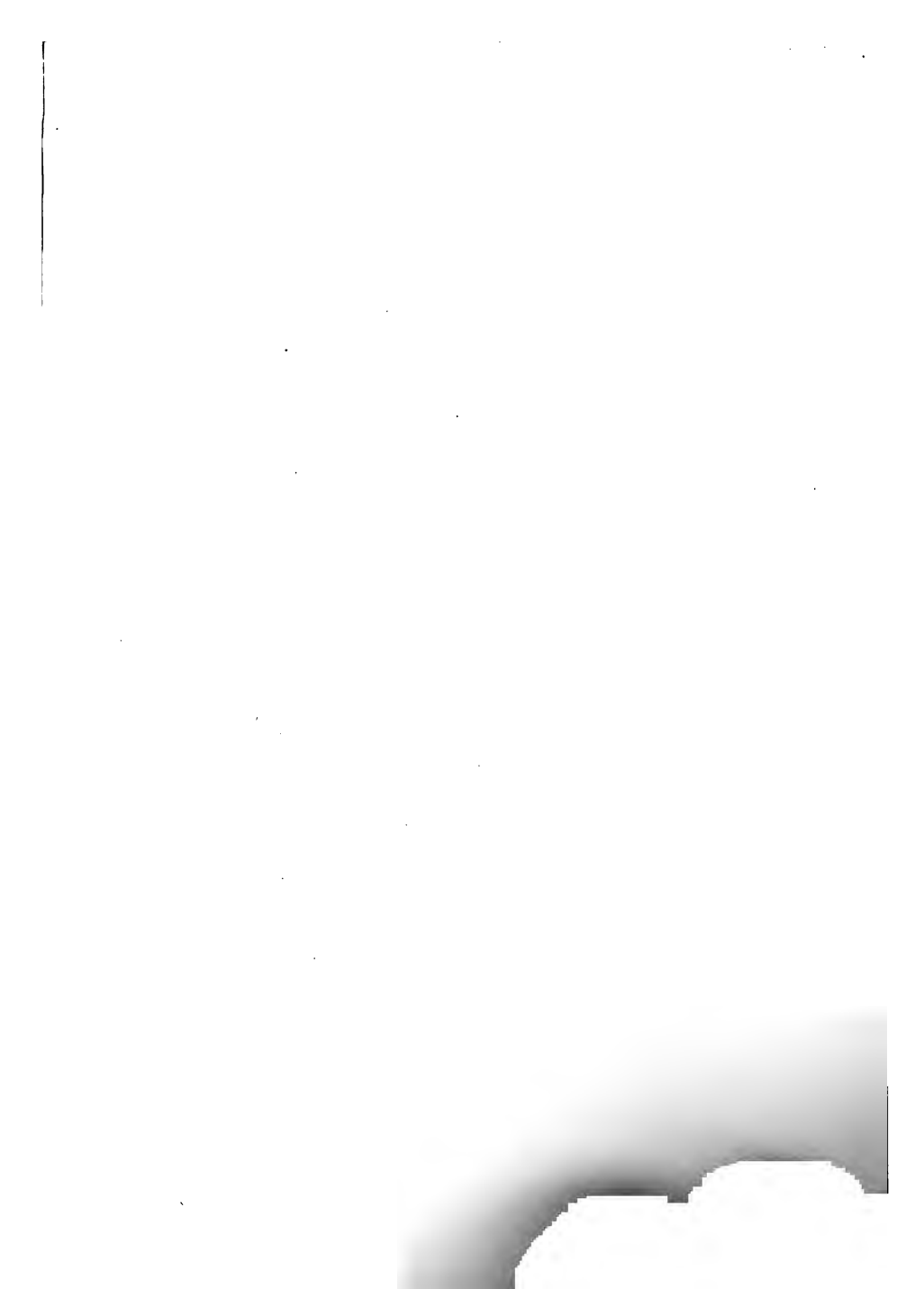
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- INFLECTION: the change of a word in form to indicate either some variation in its meaning (*book, books; see, saw*) or its construction in the sentence (*He saw me* before *I saw him*).
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- REGULAR VERBS:** see **WEAK VERBS**.
- RELATIVE ADVERB:** a subordinate conjunction used to connect an adjective clause to its antecedent.
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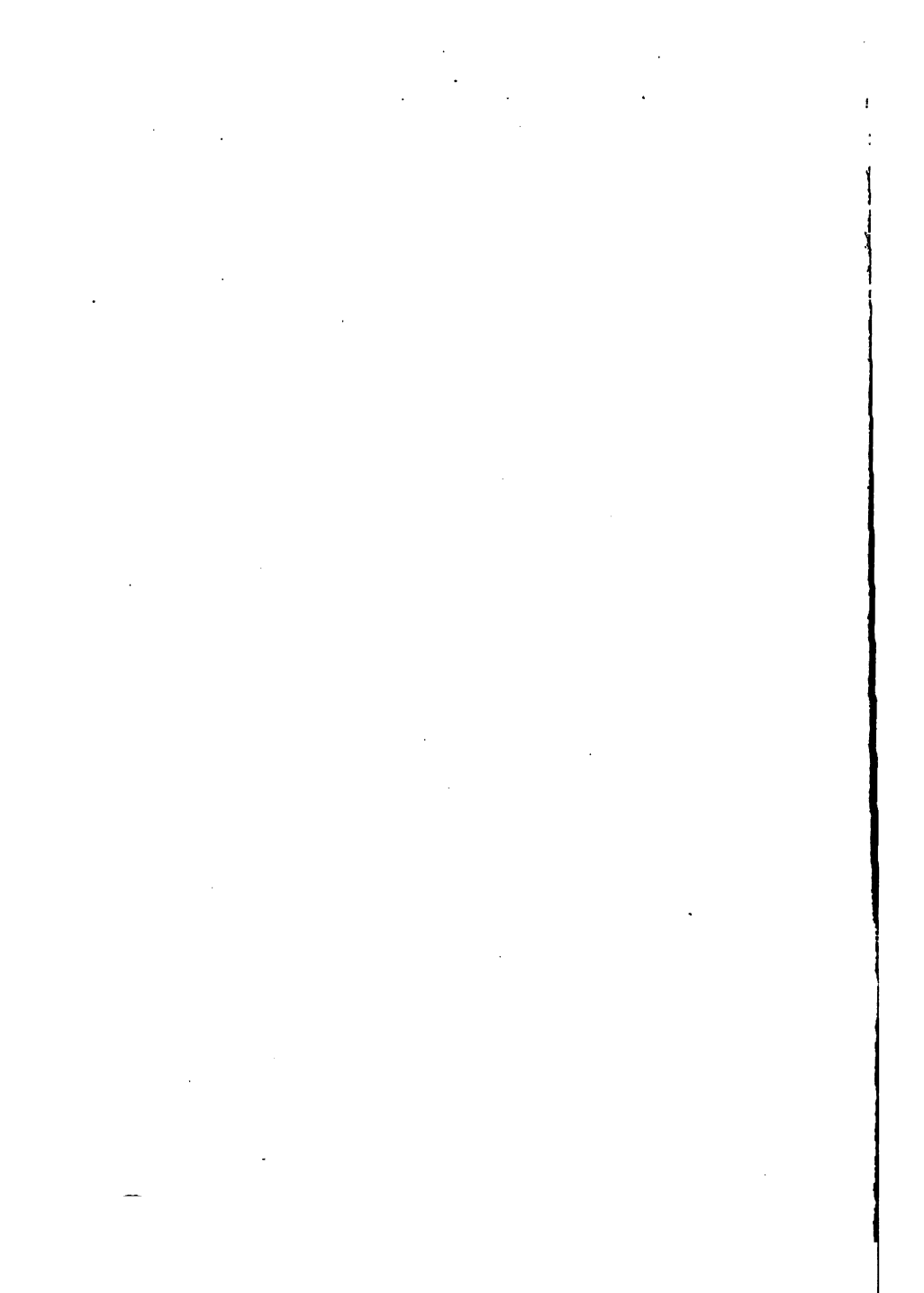
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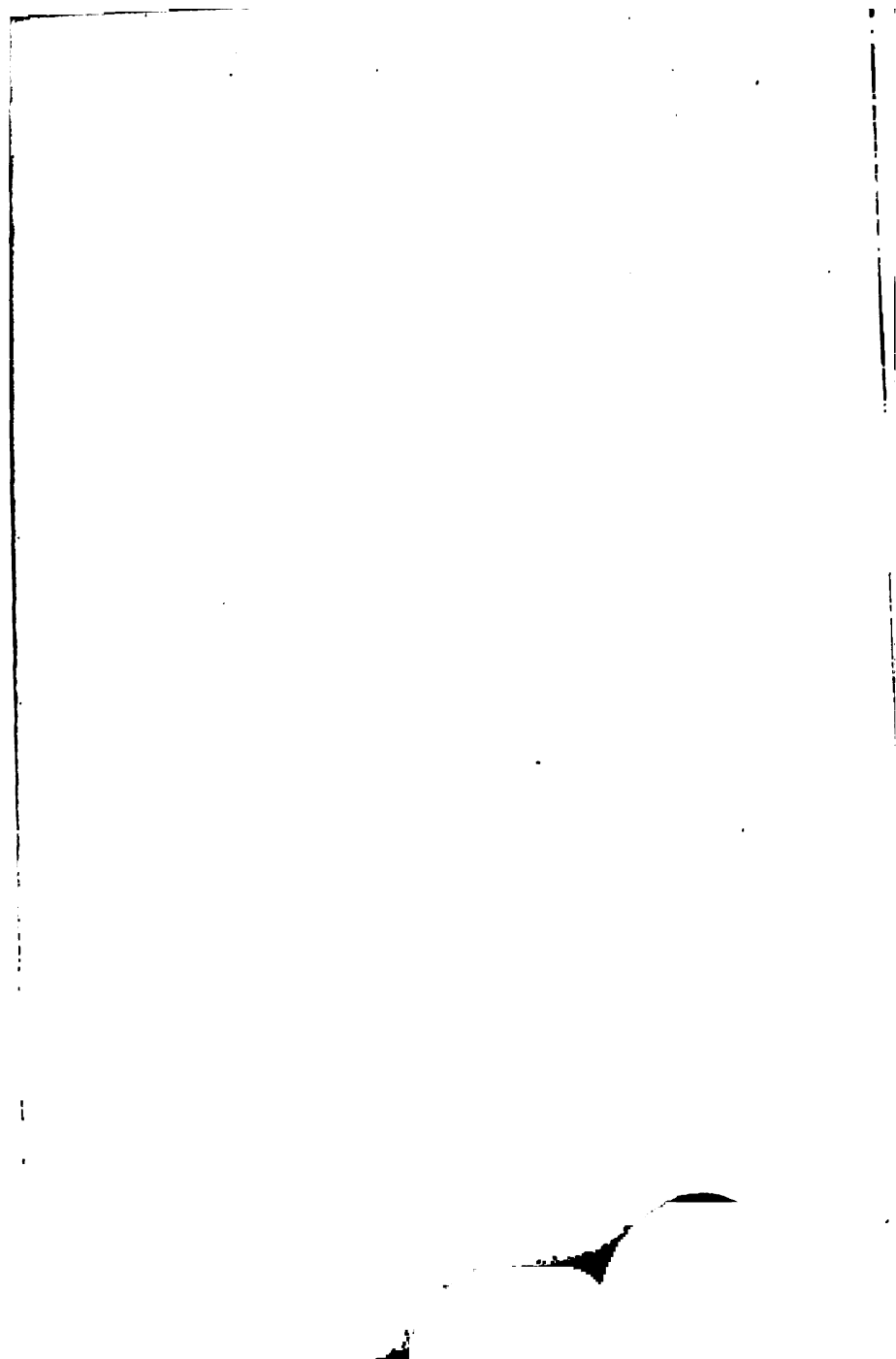
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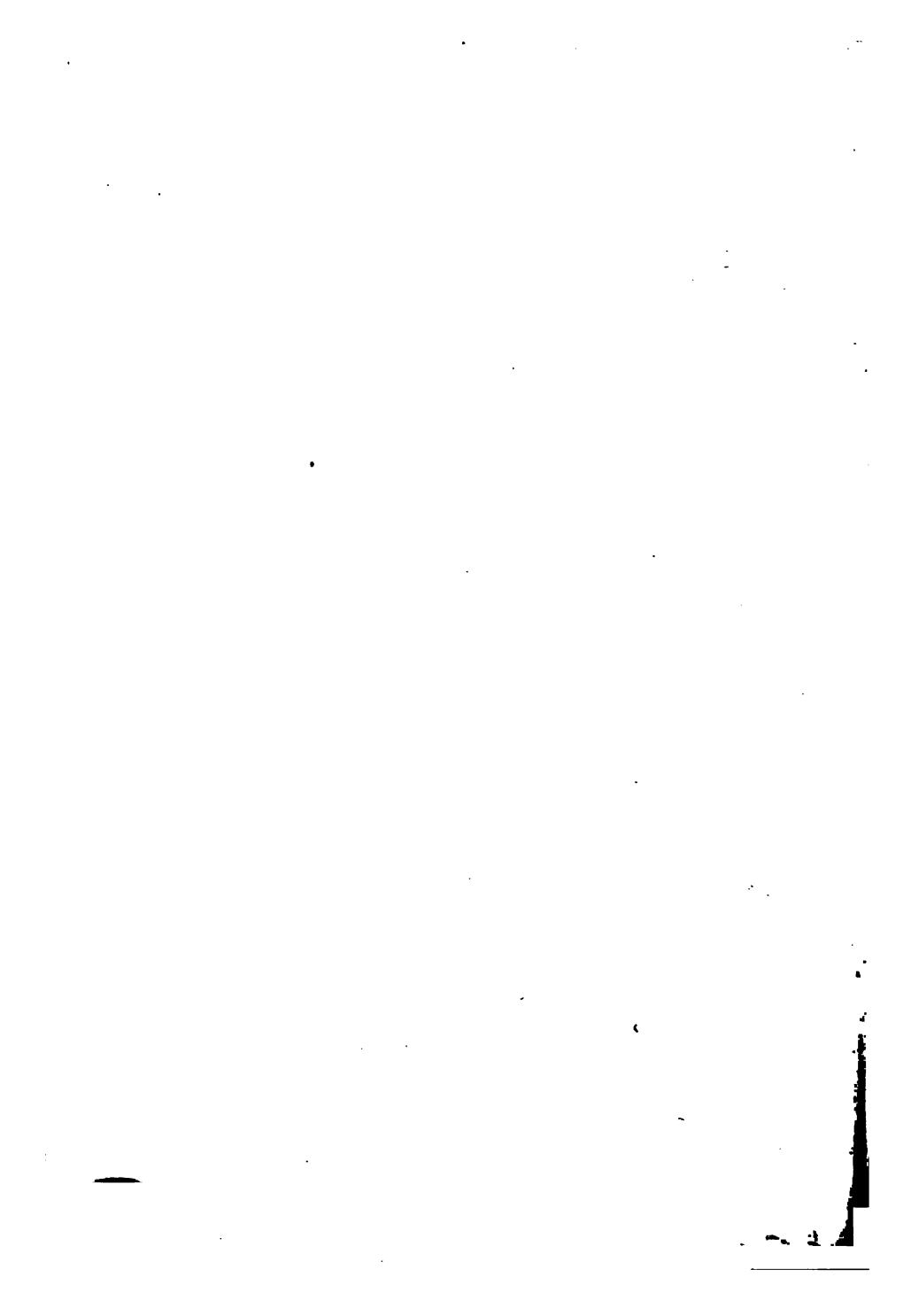












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